

Introduction

In the spirit of the reforms that are sweeping through the Western world in general and through Israel in particular in the post-modern era, the educational system is required to cope with far-reaching changes (Blasé and Blasé, 1996; Clement and Vandenberg, 2000; Fullan, 2000). To meet these challenges and fulfill the educational tasks, the educational system needs teachers who are willing to act for the school and its tasks above and beyond the formal requirements of their roles.

Researches performed in different organizations in recent years point to the concept of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), which is defined as extra-role behavior that goes beyond the worker's duty and is not directly identified by the organization's formal rewards system but contributes to its effectiveness (Motowidlo, 2000; Organ, 1990; Organ and Near, 1983).

The review of the literature shows that organizational citizenship behavior has been studied frequently, and primarily on the level of the individual and his relationship to this behavior. In addition, it appears that despite its considerable contribution to schools in the increase of the organizational effectiveness and reduction of tensions, the research of organizational citizenship behavior among teachers has been a subject of little attention (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001a; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

The primary objective of the present research is to develop the concept of OCB in the realm of the schools and to add knowledge on the theoretical and empirical level to this important concept. The research proposes an integrative model for the understanding of OCB among teachers, which includes variables on the level of the individual and on the level of the organization and enables the simultaneous identification of the impact of each one of the elements on this behavior. On the level of the individual, the teachers' attitudes (commitment to the school: affective commitment and value congruence commitment, perceived organizational support, and satisfaction) and demographic variables (experience, education, age, and role) are examined. On the level of the organization the research examines a main variable of writing school based curricula in autonomous schools. The research studies show that the process of writing school based curricula has significant products in

the school (Huberman, 1992; Kaspy, 1988). However, to the best of my knowledge, the impact on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and their attitudes has yet to be examined. In addition, the model proposes to examine a system of relations among its variables.

The need to examine this behavior among teachers derives from my work of the past twenty years in different roles in the educational system, as a teacher, a principal, and especially today as a lecturer of education and a pedagogical instructor. I am aware of the real need of the educational system for teachers who are willing to give and invest in their work above the formal role requirements. Without these teachers schools find it difficult to meet their goals. I am aware of the fact that teachers differ from one another and each one acts in his own way, but in light of my familiarity with many schools, I feel that there are essential differences in the behavior of teachers in different schools. In some schools the teachers do far more than is required by their positions. More than once I have asked myself the following questions. Does organizational citizenship behavior depend only on the personal differences between the teachers? Can schools add to and raise their teachers' organizational citizenship behavior – and how? I believe that discovering the variables that influence this behavior among teachers can give the different people of education the tools with which to promote the educational system and help it cope with the challenges of tomorrow.

Review of the Literature

1. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

1.1 Background and Definitions

The phenomenon of organizational citizenship behavior, OCB, was first defined in the 1980s (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983) and since then it has been a focus of considerable interest among different researchers in the realms of management and organizational behavior. This concept represents the activity of the individual that is not defined in the framework of the official commitment rules that are determined between the workers and are not formally recognized by the organization's system of rewards but can promote the organizational effectiveness. Over the years, the characteristics and causes of this behavior were examined, since it serves as a tool for the evaluation of the workers' performances and a measure of the evaluation of the 'health' of the organizational system.

Organizational citizenship behavior has different definitions, which were formulated by different researchers. The following paragraphs present a sampling of these definitions.

Smith et al. (1983) defined OCB as behavior that goes above and beyond the workers' duty and is undertaken according to his decision, promotes the organizational effectiveness and efficiency, and is not rewarded in the context of the organization's formal reward structure.

According to Organ (1988, p. 4), "OCB represented individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization". Later Organ (1990, 1997) added that OCB is the behavior of free choice of workers, with their willingness to contribute more than they are required, or informal contribution that the workers can encourage or prevent regardless of rewards or possible sanctions. Organizational citizenship behavior is "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place" (Organ, 1997, p. 95).

Bateman and Organ (1983) saw OCB as the extra-role behavior of the workers that is not described or required ahead of time and is subject

to the workers' desire but facilitates the social machinery of the organization and improves its performances. They developed the concept and measured it through the constellation of worker behaviors that are greatly esteemed by the managers but cannot be demanded. Examples of this behavior are assistance to other workers, personal interest in the work of other people, volunteering to conduct non-required work, proposals for the improvement and increased effectiveness of the organization, precision, and presence at work beyond the accepted hours, etc. The behaviors also include behaviors that the individual avoids performing although he has the right, such as complaints over minor issues, expression of opposition, etc. Puffer (1987) sees it as behavior that is related to work but is not included in the obligating framework of the role.

Organ and Konovsky (1989) define organizational citizenship behavior as behavior that represents a line of beneficial actions that are not necessary in-role behaviors and do not obtain direct or indirect actions from an official reward system. Graham (1989, 1991) maintains that OCB is the organizational parallel to citizen duties on the level of the country that include responsibility, loyalty, and political participation. The strength of the relationship between the worker and the organization influences his citizenship behavior in the organization, like the relationship between the citizen and his country. Graham's approach was adopted by a number of researchers (for example, Bienstock, DeMoraville, and Smith, 2003).

Borman and Motowidlo (1993, p. 73) define OCB as activities at work that "do not support the technical core itself as much as they support the organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function". Becker (1992) sees OCB as a type of organizational behavior that helps others. Vardi and Wiener (1996) differentiate it from its negative parallel, misbehavior, which expresses spontaneous behavior that is not explicitly prohibited by the organization and its inner system of rules but impairs the organization, its resources, or its objectives.

At this point, it must be emphasized that organizational citizenship behavior defined as 'extra-role behavior' differs primarily from 'in-role behavior' in the degree to which others reward the behavior or set sanctions if it is not performed (Organ, 1988, 1990). According to Katz (1964), both in-role behaviors or extra-role behaviors

may be worthwhile in terms of reward, but the intra-role behaviors have greater likelihood of being related to rewards or external sanctions, formal or informal. In contrast, researchers note that the incentives for extra-role activity are weaker, and therefore the motivation to undertake them is lower (Organ, 1988; Puffer, 1987). Managers, for example, can appreciate this behavior but they cannot demand it or assign sanctions if it is not undertaken (Motowidlo, 2000).

Another important point in the understanding of the organizational citizenship behavior is the way in which the workers define in-role and extra-role behavior. This definition can hint at the fact that it is possible that workers who are ‘good citizen’ types do more than others since they perceive that these roles too are the obligation of their role. The research of OCB tended to bypass the lack of clarity and potential subjectivity of the concept of OCB through the adoption of one perspective in regards to the border between in-role and extra-role behavior, the perspectives of the supervisors – how they see a certain behavior (Fahr, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990). Only a few researches coped with the examination of the role definition and its relationship with OCB (Blakely, Srivastava and Moorman, 2005; Morrison, 1994).

The present research study addresses the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers in schools and thus uses the typology developed by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000) especially for teachers. In the present study the OCB is defined as the behaviors that are beyond the formal requirements of the role that are aimed towards the individual, the group, or the entire organization, with the goal of promoting the organization’s goals (Organ, 1988). This definition, according to Bogler and Somech (2005) and Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004), emphasizes a number of aspects.

- This behavior is not included in the formal role requirements and is performed voluntarily.
- This definition focuses on the behaviors that benefit the organization and promote its goals and not every behavior that goes beyond the formal role expectations and is performed in the organization (Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks, 1995).
- The definition emphasizes the multidimensional structure of the concept in different types of this behavior.

Hence, it is necessary to address the concept on the theoretical and empirical level according to the different dimensions: the understanding of the preliminary factors and the products depends on the researched level (George, 1996).

In the following the review of the literature focuses on the organizational citizenship behavior in the school and then defines the different dimensions of this behavior as found in different organizations, and as found specifically in the school.

1.2 Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the School

While the organizational citizenship behavior is frequently studied in the areas of business administration, the social sciences, economics, and psychology, the researches that were conducted in the realm of education are very few. The opinion has been voiced that this field has been ignored (Bogler and Somech, 2005; DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

According to DiPaola and Hoy (2005), every successful organization, including the successful school, is based on workers who are willing to contribute and invest their powers and time beyond the formal requirements. In light of the fact that in recent years the educational systems cope with challenges of changes and re-structuring, the teachers are assigned many diverse tasks (Blasé and Blasé, 1996; Clement and Vandenberg, 2000; Wall and Rinehart, 1998). In this period, the educational system needs teachers with high organizational citizenship behavior, which will facilitate the success of the changes (Somech and Bogler, 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000). This behavior, which is not defined in the teachers' formal work agreements, includes the help for students after school hours, adjustment of the learning to different levels of students, volunteering to prepare materials for and participate in extracurricular activities, cooperative work and with and help for other teachers, making suggestions to improve the school, and volunteering for different committees. These actions are related to the technical core of the organization (Bogler and Somech, 2004) and they enable the schools to survive over time, to alleviate tension, and to increase the school effectiveness (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

The few researches that engaged in OCB of teachers gave rise to the question of whether schools and the teaching profession are different in comparison to other organizations and professions and what are the implications that may then exist on the understanding of the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers.

Oplatka (2006) maintains that the school organization and the teaching profession create a different work environment from that in other organizations. These differences may lead to different OCB of teachers as opposed to what is found in other sectors. Many professions in industry and services are based on teamwork for the effective performance of the tasks, while teaching, in contrast, is performed with some disconnection from the professional colleagues and thus it enables considerable professional autonomy (Hargreaves, 1998). Researches define schools as loosely coupled organizations (Weick, 1976), characterized by the low level of coordination among people, since teachers are for the most part isolated from their work colleagues and from the school principal (Somech and Ron, 2007). Due to this fact, in schools it is sometimes difficult to encourage teachers to OCB behavior in comparison to workers in organizations in which there are regular relations among the members.

DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) present another outlook, stating that in theory schools are similar to other organizations and can be described in terms of client-serving professionals operating in a highly bureaucratic setting. In other words, the teachers hold a status of a true professional who work in bureaucratic structures that limit their work (Scott, 1981). This situation is described in the literature as a conflict between the teachers' professional desire and the ability to realize it, which in many cases is not solvable (Blau, 1968; Kuhlman and Hoy, 1974; Ritzer and Walczak, 1986). Unlike these organizations, it was proved that in schools where there was congruence between the teachers' goals and the school's goals the conflict disappeared (Ritzer and Walczak, 1986). These schools, which succeeded in resolving the conflict, are effective schools that succeed in encouraging teachers to OCB. This fact indicates the possibility inherent in schools to encourage and increase the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

In addition to differences in the structure of the organization, the researchers note differences related to the teaching profession, which is

different from other professions. Teaching is characterized as a profession with ambiguous and unclear boundaries and thus too the roles of the teacher. Hence, the definition of what is OCB is open and subject to each teacher's understanding and outlook (Meyer, Scott, and Deal, 1992). It became clear that workers perform more OCB when there are no clear criteria of the role obligations (Bolino, 1999).

In addition, teaching fundamentally includes perceptions of service and moral responsibility: the service includes moral and emotional responsibility to develop another person and commitment to moral values (Day, 1999). Teaching is considered in certain terms to be a 'moral' and 'ideological' profession, which incorporates values and ideals since it engages in 'caring' and empathy, which are emotional motifs that are not necessarily required by other professions (Nias, 1999).

Because of these differences, the researchers suggest devoting a specific research to the study of OCB among teachers (Oplatka, 2006). This type of research is of critical significance, since schools will derive considerable benefit from the understanding of behavior and its causes, so that they can establish environments that encourage this behavior and increase the school effectiveness (George and Brief, 1992; Somech and Bogler, 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

In the continuation, the review of organizational citizenship behavior and its characteristics among workers in general is extended and what is known of this behavior among teachers in particular is addressed.

1.3 The Contribution of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The great interest in the research of organizational citizenship behavior can be ascribed to the argument of Bateman and Organ (1983), who note that these behaviors are critical for the organization. These researchers and others establish their assertion on the school of human relations that attributes importance to the informal facet in the organization and to its contribution to the effective and successful functioning of the entire system. The OCB has a diverse contribution to the efficiency and effectiveness of organizations: they give the organization abilities of flexibility and appropriate functioning in conditions of uncertainty (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Williams

and Andersson, 1991). They allow workers to help one another to achieve the goals of the organization through the increase of the exploitation of the financial and human resources at its disposal (Organ, 1988; Yan Yperen et al., 1999). They increase the resources of the organization without using expensive formal means such as incentives, bonuses, or types of rewards (Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983).

Organizational citizenship behavior can be said to “lubricate the social machinery of the organization (Bateman and Organ, 1983, p. 588) and thus they prevent frictions and improve the organization’s functioning (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997).

An impact of success and effectiveness of organizations is ascribed to the OCB. It was found that workers with high OCB less leave the organization even when there are changes and upheavals therein (Chen, Hui, and Sego, 1998; Karambayya, 1989). Researchers (George, 1996; Organ and Konovsky, 1989) noted that organizational citizenship behavior is important to the organization because organizations cannot anticipate the whole range of behaviors needed for the achievement of organizational goals through formal job descriptions.

Organizational citizenship behavior contributes to the managers since it constitutes a reliable and acceptable measurement for the evaluation of the worker functioning (Becker, 1992; Borman, White, and Dorsey, 1995; Pasmore and Fagans, 1992). The researchers maintain that principals evaluate the functioning of their workers in the things that lie beyond the expected behavior obligated by their role. Workers who are considered effective by the managers are the workers who do not promote themselves by who work for others. They help, are good sports, and exhibit civic virtue (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994).

Researchers of education note the unique contribution of OCB among teachers. When teachers work with students in their free time and attempt learning methods and strategies suited to their students, they assume personal responsibility for the learning and achievements. Thus there is an improvement in the scholastic achievements (DiPaola and Hoy, 2005a). In a research conducted in high schools the researchers (DiPaola and Hoy, 2005b) found that the OCB of the teachers was significantly related to the students’ achievements, which is one of the characteristics of school effectiveness.

To summarize, it is possible to say that OCB is positive and desirable behavior in the organization and that as the organization members possess greater voluntary willingness to participate in processes that contribute to the overall systemic functioning the organization can cope more successfully with its objectives and with the challenges that it presents.

1.4 The Different Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Most researchers maintain that organizational citizenship behavior is a multidimensional concept and hence it is necessary to examine it according to the differences dimensions. However, there is no consensus regarding the different dimensions (George, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bacharach, 2000; Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks, 1995).

A review of the literature (Podsakoff et al., 2000) shows that different researchers proposed nearly thirty forms of OCB, which can be classified into different dimensions. The main dimensions are presented here. Organ (1990) divides organizational citizenship behavior into actions that are positive and actions that are negative. Positive actions are those that the worker performs, such as support of peers or preservation of the organization's property. Negative actions are actions that the worker avoids performing although in retrospect he has the right to do them, such as complaints on trivial matters or the initiation of unnecessary arguments with others. This type is called quality of forbearance.

Another way of division suggest dividing the behaviors into seven topics according to type of behavior, such as (1) helping behaviors, (2) sportsmanship, (3) organization loyalty, (4) organization compliance, (5) individual initiative, (6) civic virtue, and (7) self development (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Another approach proposes to classify this behavior according to the target of the organizational citizenship behavior. (Bogler and Somech, 2005; McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Williams and Andersson, 1991). Accordingly, a distinction was drawn between the different elements and the different objectives that the behavior targets (for instance, behavior that is

directed towards individuals, such as clients and colleagues in the organization, and behavior that is directed towards the organization as a whole).

Researches have shown that different factors are related to different types of OCB and therefore the researchers recommend addressing the different dimensions. (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997; McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000, 2004; Williams and Andersson, 1991).

According to Graham (1989), there are four dimensions to the concept of organizational citizenship behavior:

1. Interpersonal assistance – helping peers at work
2. Personal initiative – describing communication for others to promote personal and group performances
3. Personal industriousness – performance of tasks above and beyond the simple duty.
4. ‘Boosterism’ – promoting the image of the organization to the outside world.

Another accepted division is the division into five dimensions proposed by Organ (1988, 1997):

1. Altruism – The workers’ behaviors directed towards other people in a problem relevant to the organization, such as helping the peer at work.
2. Conscientiousness – Behavior that contributes to the organization as a whole and beyond the minimum requirements, behavior of dedication, respect and dignity, and obedience of the organization’s rules.
3. Sportsmanship – avoidance of negative behavior, for instance, refraining from petty complaints.
4. Courtesy – taking the counsel of the work partners regarding actions that may influence their work, such as giving advance notice reminders and passing along appropriate information.
5. Civic virtue – Involvement in the political life in the organization, for example serving on committees and attending functions that help the image of the organization.

These five dimensions were empirically established by different researchers (Avrahami, 2003; Lievens and Anseel, 2004; Skarlicki and Latham, 1996).

Smith et al. (1983) and Williams and Andersson (1991) differentiated between two main types of organizational citizenship, one is directed towards the individual in the organization and the other towards the entire organization:

1. Altruistic organizational citizenship behavior (OCBI – OCB for the individual) – behaviors oriented on individuals in the organization are behaviors that have direct impact on the individual (superior, client, other worker) and indirectly influence the organization, for instance, help of a worker who was absent from his job.
2. Conscientious or compliant organizational citizenship behavior (OCBO – OCB for the organization) – These behaviors are directed to the entire organization and represent conscientious behavior in areas such as presence and precision to an extent that far exceeds what is required and providing advice to improve the organization.

In essence, researchers assert that the five dimensions proposed by Organ (1988, 1997) can be classified into these two main dimensions, when altruism and courtesy belong to OCBI while conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue belong to OCBO (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, and Rosner, 2005). This two dimensional construct was supported by different researchers who found empirical evidence of the existence of the two dimensions and of the relationship between different factors and the different dimensions (McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997; Skarlicki and Latham, 1995; Williams and Andersson, 1991).

The researchers who examined OCB in the schools see the concept of OCB to be a multidimensional concept. Somech and Ron (2007) found that the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers in Israel included the five dimensions proposed by Organ (1988, 1990) and Podsakoff et al. (1990). Cohen (2007) found that the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers in Israel from different sectors (Jews, Druse, and Arabs) includes three types of behavior: altruism, civic virtue, and conscientiousness. Christ, Van Dick, and Wagner (2003) found different dimensions of OCB among 447 teachers in Germany: OCB towards the team, towards the own qualification, and towards the organization.

A series of researches conducted in Israel found that OCB is a three-dimensional concept and teachers direct it towards three different objectives:

1. Behavior directed towards the students, for instance preparation of materials of different levels according to the students' needs, support of students with difficulties after the close of the school day.
2. Behavior directed towards other teachers, for instance, helping new teachers, help with learning materials for teachers.
3. Behavior directed towards the school as an organization, for instance, giving ideas for the improvement of the school image (Bogler and Somech, 2004, 2005; Somech and Bogler, 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

The researchers found that different factors (commitment to the organization, satisfaction, participation in decision making, empowerment) are related differently to each of the dimensions. They recommended continuing to research OCB in schools according to the different dimensions.

The researchers DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) assert that among teachers different dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior were not found: OCB in school was revealed to be a one-factor construct. The one-dimensional construct was also found in the research of DiPaola and Hoy (2005), who explain that the OCB depends on the organization's context (Karambayya, 1989; Organ, 1988). Schools are public organizations that are different from most of the private organizations that were examined in the research literature. Another reason is that in the schools, by their very nature, all the resources are directed to one shared goal – the promotion of the students (Blau and Scott, 1962). Hence, all the behaviors of the teachers, such as help for the student, the teacher, or the principal, preparation of materials in free time, etc., derive from the perception of the teaching role, so that the boundaries between the dimensions blur into one dimension (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

The perception of the present research study continues that of the many researchers who support the multidimensional approach to OCB in different organizations and in the school. (Drach-Zahavi, 2004; McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997; Somech and Drach-Zahavi, 2000, 2004; Williams and Andersson, 1991). The

present research study examines the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers in schools according to the three dimensions found in these aforementioned researches. The next section addresses the variables that may influence this behavior in different organizations and in the schools.

1.5 Antecedents of Employee Organizational Citizenship Behavior

For the past twenty years, different research studies have been conducted in the attempt to reveal the variables related to OCB and how it is possible to improve this behavior in different organizations. The researches focused on two main issues, or research levels: first, the employee characteristics, in other words, variables on the level of the individual, and second, the organization characteristics. Most of the studies focuses on the level of the individual and attempted to explain how the employee characteristics are related to his organizational citizenship behavior. In recent years, there is increased understanding that this phenomenon should be researched from a broad perspective from the perception that the individual does not work in a vacuum and in addition to the traits of the individual, the group and the organization where the individual works also have impact on the employee's organizational citizenship behavior (Koberg, Boss, Bursten, and Goodman, 1999).

The present research sees OCB as a broad phenomenon and examines concurrently the two main factors that may influence the OCB of teachers: factors on the level of the individual and factors on the level of the organization.

1.5.1 OCB and Variables on the Level of the Individual

Research on this level focuses on the factors related to the worker as an individual, on his traits of personal attitudes, as related to the performance of behavior beyond the obligation of his role (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Schappe, 1998). Some even asserted that OCB might have a genetic component (Konovsky and Organ, 1996). Researches on the level of the individual described a system of relationships tied to the individual, according to which the group and the organization do not have meaning. The individual has a system of perceptions and values of his own, which differs from person

to person, and it influences his behavior in general and his organizational citizenship behavior in particular.

Three comprehensive reviews of the literature provide a clear picture of the individual characteristics related to OCB and reveal the different factors related to this behavior (LePine, Erez, and Jonson, 2002; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, 2000).

The individual characteristics include the following three categories:

1. Dispositional variables, which address the employee's emotional state. In this category are variables that are positively related to organizational citizenship behavior: affectivity, the tendency to respond affirmatively regardless of the situation (George, 1990; Organ, 1990; Somech and Ron, 2007), agreeableness (KPMpovsky and Orgna, 1996), and conscientiousness (Organ and Ryna, 1995), belief in hard work, the need for independence (Ryan, 2002), and strong ethical values (Turnipseed, 2002).
2. Attitudes variables are a cognitive variable. In other word, a state in which a person crystallizes an attitude from logical reasons and cognitive thinking. This category has been a subject of extensive and comprehensive research over the years and researches have shown that these variables have relatively influenced more than the dispositional variables (Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Somech and Ron, 2007).
3. Demographic variables such as gender, education, experience, tenure, etc., which were examined in almost all the researches. Thus, it is not possible to speak of a clear system of relations.

The present research study examines two foci on the level of the individual: attitudes variables and demographic variables, with the goal of adding to the little information that exists on the relationship between them and teacher OCB. Before going into greater depth in the research literature on these variables, two theories that can shed light on the understanding of the relationship between personal variables and employee OCB are presented.

Theories Supporting the Level of the Individual as Related to OCB

The research literature that examines the phenomenon of OCB in the individual aspect of the behavior of the workers in the organization can be understood as a part of the approach of human relations in work organizations that explains the nature of the relationship and the system of reciprocal relations between the organization and the worker. The school of human relations emphasizes the importance of the informal organization in the workers' life and the emotional aspects of the organization. To understand this system of relations we use theories that address motivation, which pushes the person to act, and the transactional approach that is the main approach upon which the most of the researches that engage in OCB on the level of the individual are based. The main factor in the understanding of the behavior of people on the personal level is the understanding of the **motivation** that leads the person to act so as to achieve a certain goal, when the achievement of this goal leads to satisfaction (Rim, Erez, and Seidenros, 1974).

The hierarchy of needs theory of Maslow (1943, 1954) is based on the assumption that needs influence the individual's behavior. Need in the person creates motivation, which lead to behavior and actions, which are intended to provide the person's needs. With the satisfaction of the need, the person feels satisfaction and the desire to continue to exist in this situation. Maslow (1943) lists five needs that are structured in a hierarchical structure of five stages: physical needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-realization needs. When a person is secure in the first stage, he can climb to the following stages. He further asserts that the healthy individual receives enough satisfactions of the motives of security, belonging, love, respect, and self-esteem and he is motivated first and foremost by the trend to self-fulfillment (Maslow, 1962). The self-fulfillment in this context is perceived as an ongoing process of the realization of the individual's abilities and talents that leads him to activity that originate from inner sources and that cannot be implemented by others.

Maslow's approach was strengthened by other psychologists (Alderfer, 1969; McGregor, 1960; White, 1959), who agree with the perception that the individual is especially motivated by his need to realize the abilities and talents innate in his core, a need that is expressed in the work world as well. These approaches led to the refutation of the approach that people work only to maintain material benefit.

McGregor (1960) developed Maslow's approach and emphasized primarily the realization of the person's needs in the work place. He proposed to examine the behavior of people at work according to the X Y theory. The X theory expressed a traditional perception at work, according to which the average person has an inherent resistance to work and he will avoid it. Managers of this type tended to control dictatorially, to implement supervision systems, and to refrain from trusting that their workers would work by themselves without supervision. The Y theory expressed an advanced perception that states that people work since this is natural and they seek responsibility so that they will have a certain degree of control over their efforts. Managers of this type had an open style, acquired trust, democratic, and delegated authorities. According to the perception of the aforementioned different researchers, a person who succeeds in responding to the need for self-fulfillment on the actions that he adopts will be satisfied and will wish to continue this situation. It can be assumed that the person will adopt different actions and even go beyond the duty of his role to retain this situation, for example, they will adopt organizational citizenship behavior. Hence, different people will perform OCB differently, according to the realization of their personal needs and their level of inner motivation. This is one way to explain factors that influence the OCB.

In a way that is different from the aforementioned approaches, the main theoretical basis of the research of the factors of OCB is related to the exchange approach, which is accepted by most researchers. The researchers explain that there is a system of social and economic exchange between the worker and the organization and that organizational citizenship behavior is one of its positive products. Workers maintain this behavior as a reward towards the organization and certain people therein, for support and assistance. This approach bridges the perceptual gap in the understanding of the motives and impacts on the behavior of the individual in the work organization (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Flynn, 2003; Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988).

Blau (1964) was the first who differentiates between two types of transactions that constitute a continuum of types of systems of relations: at one edge, there are purely economic transactions and at the other edge, there are social transactions. The economic conversion is most limited and is based on the fairness of the contractual requirements and

commitments that were determined beforehand, such as payment. Social conversion is more general and is based on a broad variety of factors that lie beyond the contractual commitment, for instance, trust, and commitment in the general system.

According to Holmes (1981), economic conversion is based on transactions while social conversion is based on the individual's trust that the other side will fulfill his obligation when the reward is not defined as in an economic transaction. According to Organ (1988), in the organization there are two types of exchanges, however contractual commitment never will be enough to cover all the sides that exist in the organization and therefore the social exchange is the most meaningful in the understanding of the workers' behavior. From this reason the present research study only addresses social exchange (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986).

In addition, since the researched schools are public schools and the teachers are state employees there is no expression of economic exchange between the school and its teachers. The process of social exchange is based on norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). According to this norm, one side provides benefits and the other side responds reciprocally. In other words, the contribution of one side creates the commitment of the other side. The reciprocal commitment creates trust and commitment between both parties. The failure of one side to fill the needs of the other side lessens the trust and commitment of both sides and eventually leads to the end of the system of social exchange (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960; Holmes, 1981). Organ and Konovsky (1989) note that OCB is the channel that reflects the reciprocity and the workers develop these behaviors as a reward for the organization's attitude. The workers' attitudes develop in a cognitive process as a result of the thinking and understanding of events. When workers develop positive attitudes in the organization, for example, when they believe that they receive fair treatment, that the organization supports them, or that they feel other positive feelings in the organization such as satisfaction, they behave with reciprocity, which is expressed also in their behavior beyond the duty of the role.

The two described theories of the worker's motivation and the social exchange can explain the individual level, in other words, the reason that certain people will perform OCB on a different level from that of other people. This behavior depends on their personal motivation

or on their personal perception of the organization in such a way that encourages them to adopt a certain behavior, in comparison to other people. Although individual level models have been studied considerably, the researchers' recommendation is to add to this type of research till all the variables that might be related to the OCB are discovered (Schnake and Dumler, 2003).

Accordingly, the present research study examines the individual level: the teachers' attitudes and demographic variables as related to the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior.

Relationship between Teacher Attitudes and Teacher OCB

Most research in the field of OCB has focused on the research of attitudes – a cognitive variable, in other words, the situation in which the person crystallizes an attitude out of logical reasons and cognitive thinking. The researchers have found that many attitude variables are related to worker OCB, for instance:

- The worker's satisfaction (Bateman and Organ, 1983)
- The worker's commitment to the organization (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Williams and Anderson, 1991)
- The worker's identification with the organization (Christ, Van Dick, and Wagner, 2003)
- The perceived equity or fairness (Folger, 1993; Moorman et al., 1993; Organ and Moorman, 1991; Skarlicki and Latham, 1996; Tepper and Taylor, 2003)
- The worker's emotional attachment (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky, 2002; Organ and Ryan, 1995)
- The perceived organizational support (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Shore and Wayne, 1993).

Another series of researches on the level of the individual focused on leadership and on the employer – employee relations (Fahr, Podsakoff, and Organ, 1990; Organ and Konovsky, 1989). The researchers found that the way in which the workers perceive the principal and his personality influences their organizational citizenship behavior. It was also found that as the workers felt perceived supervisor support, they performed more OCB (Randall, Cropanzano, Borman, and Birjulin, 1999; Somech and Ron, 2007).

Additional proof of the relationship between management style and worker OCB was found in the researches of Konovsky and Pugh (1994), Niehof and Moorman (1993), Organ and Ryan (1995), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996), Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990).

In the schools Koh, Steers, and Terborg (1995) examined the impact of school principals with transformational leadership on the attitudes of teachers and their degree of OCB. The leadership style was found related to the OCB through a mediating variable of satisfaction at work. Researchers (Ngunia, Slegersb, and Denessen, 2007) in schools in Tanzania proof of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and commitment to the organization, satisfaction, and OCB.

Of the many attitudes variables found by the researchers, the present study focuses on three main variables that were found to be related to the organizational citizenship behavior in different organizations but have been examined very little, if at all, among teachers: commitment to the organization, perceived organizational support, and satisfaction.

Organizational Commitment and OCB

Organizational commitment has been considerably studied over the years. The engagement in the topic derives primarily from its impact of the attitudes and behaviors of the workers (Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker, 1990). The present research study addresses the concept of commitment according to the positional approach, which maintains that commitment is an attitude or psychological situation. In this approach, preliminary variables and results related to commitments are examined (Buchanan, 1974; Steers, 1977).

The focus of the present research study is on the relationship and influence of this attitude on the workers' organizational citizenship behavior. Organizational commitment addresses loyalty or the relationship of the individual to the organization that employs him (Bozeman and Perrewe, 2001).

According to Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974, p. 604) organizational commitment is "the strength of an individual's

identification with and involvement in a particular organization". It is expressed in the willingness to preserve the membership in the organization, identification with the values and goals of the organization, and willingness to invest effort to support the goals in the behavior at work. According to this definition, the researchers developed the OCQ – the organizational commitment questionnaire. In the past, this was the most popular measure for the examination of the organizational commitment. Later, a multidimensional approach developed to examine the organizational commitment, since research studies showed that the OCQ expresses only one element of a number of dimensions, the affective commitment (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Dunham et al., 1994; Vandenberg, Self, and Seo, 1994).

Allen and Meyer (1990) differentiated three different types of commitment, which are perceived as a psychological state that characterizes the workers' relations with the organization:

- Affective commitment – the worker identifies with the organization and therefore is committed to and involved in the achievement of its goals.
- Ongoing commitment – The worker has an interest in remaining in the organization because of profit loss considerations (for instance, pension and seniority) or because the other alternatives are not attractive for him (Meyer and Allen, 1984).
- Normative commitment – The worker remains in the organization because of the feeling of loyalty and devotion to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer and Allen, 1991).

According to the researchers, the three dimensions are the elements of commitment that tie the worker to the organization, when each worker may experience each one of the types of the commitment separately and on a different level (Meyer and Allen, 1991). In addition, every one of the forms of commitment is influenced by different independent variables and leads to different organizational outcomes (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson, 1989; Randall, Fedor, and Longenecker, 1990).

The present research study uses the dimension of affective commitment, since the researchers maintain that it is the most significant. People who feel emotional attachment to the organization remain in it since they truly want this and not because of other reasons.

In addition, this dimension has the most consistent relationships, in comparison to the other dimensions (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer, Allen, and Gellatly, 1990).

Affective commitment or loyalty is an emotional response of attachment to and identification with the organization, which can be expressed in the worker's sense of belonging to the organization (Mueller, Wallace, and Price, 1992). The commitment creates emotional attachment to the organization so that the individual who is strongly committed identifies with the organization, is involved in the organization, and enjoys the society therein (Allen and Meyer, 1990). According to their definition, the researchers developed a tool for the measurement of the affective commitment – the Eight Item Affective Commitment Scale (ACS). According to the researchers, affective commitment develops on the basis of psychologically rewarding experiences (Wallace, 1997). Through the process of social exchange, as a result of the positive experiences at work, the worker feels commitment to work. When workers experience in the organization appropriate experiences of their expectations and their basic needs, for example, when the organization allows them to achieve their goals and to be partners in the decisions related to work, the commitment to the organization is increased. As a result of the commitment, the motivation and desire to contribute and to perform the behavior also increase. (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Hackett, Bycio, and Hausdorf, 1994).

The present research study examines the affective commitment of teachers to the school and its relationship to organizational citizenship behavior. In addition to the affective commitment, the research examines another dimension of commitment to the organization, value congruence commitment (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). According to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986, p. 492) organizational commitment includes three dimensions, each of which is based on another source:

1. Compliance or instrumental involvement for specific, extrinsic reward
2. Identification or involvement based on a desire for affiliation
3. Internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organization values.

The present research uses the third dimension, which refers to the congruence between the individual's values and the organization's values, or in short, value congruence commitment. This dimension has

considerable meaning in the school context and in the teaching profession.

The research studies showed that the commitment to the organization was found to be one of the significant variables, on the individual level, related to OCB of workers. The researchers explained that when the worker develops commitment to the organization where he works, in other words, he feels connection and a psychological attachment to the organization, he will want to contribute and do more than his duties to ensure the success of the organization and its goals. (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch and Topolnysky, 2002; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter, 1990). The few researches performed in the field of education found that as in other organizations as the teacher's organizational commitment was greater, so too was their OCB (Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, and Rosner, 2005; Bogler and Somech, 2004; Feather and Rauter, 2004).

A recent research in Israel conducted among 560 teachers of both nationalities (Arabs and Jews) found that organizational commitment was significantly related to OCB in both examined groups (Cohen, 2006). A research that examined different types of teacher commitment (commitment to the organization, commitment to the profession, and commitment to the group) found that the teachers' commitment to the school was most strongly related to their OCB (Cohen, 2007). A research conducted among 154 teachers in Australia found that the teachers' organizational commitment was significantly related to their OCB (Feather and Rauter, 2004). Bogler and Somech (2004) found that commitment to the school was related to the three dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior towards teachers, students, and the school and that greater the commitment to the school was, the greater the degree of OCB was, in its three dimensions.

The present research study examines the relationship between the organizational commitment in its two aspects, affective commitment and value congruence commitment, and the three dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. The research hypothesis is that as the commitment to the school in its two dimensions is higher, the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers towards the school, the teachers, and the students is higher.

Perceived Organizational Support and OCB

Organizational support is every action that is adopted by the organization or its representatives that indicates the concern for the workers' well being. Perceived organizational support is the worker's overall perception of the organizational support and it reflects the individual's perception of the organizational commitment towards him, for instance, the worker who maintains that if he has a problem, then he has help on the part of the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986). In the 1950s, the researchers proposed that workers create global perceptions of support and that these perceptions are related to a variety of positive results at work (March and Simon, 1958; Etzioni, 1961).

According to the theory of organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch, 1997; Johlke, Stamper, and Shoemaker, 2002; Shore and Shore, 1995), the worker's perceptions towards the organization's commitment towards him are based on the entirety of the worker's beliefs on the degree to which the organization evaluates the contribution of his work to the organization and sees to his well being. This perception is influenced by the variety of aspects that are related to the organization's reference to the worker, for instance, the administration's reference to the worker's illness, to his error, to his good performance of his role, the desire to pay a fair wage, etc. If the workers have positive perceived support then this influences their confidence in the organization's intentions to fill their obligations towards them and therefore they will perform positive behaviors in the organization, for instance organizational citizenship behaviors. This perception of the researchers derives from the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986), which is based on the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which maintains that workers who feel a high level of organizational support will feel committed to 'pay' the organization in terms of loyalty and behavior.

Empirical researches found that workers who felt a high degree of perceived organizational level responded more conscientiously in the performance of their everyday tasks and with the lack of absences from work (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-LaMastro, 1990). In addition, their OCB increased (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Shore and Wayne, 1993).

To the best of my knowledge, researches that linked between perceived organization support among teachers and organizational citizenship behavior have not been performed. The present research attempts to examine whether this dimension will be positively related to schools, as found in other organizations. The research hypothesis maintains that teachers with a perception of high organizational support will have high OCB towards the teachers, the students, and the school.

Satisfaction in the Organization and OCB

Satisfaction is one of the most examined variables on the level of the individual that was found related to the OCB performances in different organizations (Bateman and Organ, 1983; McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Puffer, 1987; Williams and Andersson, 1991; Witt, 1991). The concept of satisfaction is based on the needs theory according to which the fulfillment of the individual's basic needs can contribute to satisfaction (Maslow, 1954) and when a person is more satisfied he is interested in retaining and strengthening what exists. Therefore, his motivation to act and to act with OCB is higher.

Additional explanations for the understanding of the satisfaction in the organization are taken from satisfaction theory (Vroom, 2003), which is based on the assumption that satisfaction is the result of the rewards perceived by the individual as positive. When the worker feels these rewards, he is satisfied and willing to do beyond his formal duty in the organization. In general, it can be said that job satisfaction is related to positive attitudes and beliefs towards different aspects of work (Organ, 1990).

Researches showed that job satisfaction was highly correlated with OCB among workers (Puffer, 1987; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983). In addition, satisfaction of managers was found to be related positively to OCB that they adopted towards their subordinates in the organization. Researches maintain that the job satisfaction of teachers is related to different factors in the school, for instance, satisfaction with student achievements, recognition from the students, the principal, and other factors, possibilities of promotion of teachers, and sense of interest at work (Friedman, Horowitz, and Shilav, 1998). According to Lee, Dedrick, and Smith (1991), the main factor of satisfaction in the teacher's job is the student. Other researchers found that teachers are

satisfied at work when they have the possibility of influencing decisions in the school and when there is cooperation in the team so that the teachers feel that they have power and are respected. (Griffin, 1995; Griffin, 1995; Shachar, 1997, 2001; Volansky, 2001; Weiss, 1993).

The few researches conducted in schools depict a similar trend regarding the positive relationship between teacher satisfaction and teacher OCB (Bragger et al., 2005). The research of Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000) found that teacher job satisfaction was positively related to three types of OCB: towards the students, the teachers, and the school.

The present research study examines this relationship between teacher job satisfaction and teacher organizational citizenship behavior. The research hypothesis maintains that teachers with considerable job satisfaction will have high OCB towards the teachers, the students, and the school.

According to the theoretical background, the present research examines the relationship between the three attitudes variables and the teacher OCB. Next, the second category in the field of individual characteristics is addressed. The following section reviews the relationship between demographic variables and the organizational citizenship behavior of workers and teachers and the possible relations between these variables and teacher attitudes.

Demographic Variables and OCB

According to the research perception, there are personal – demographic differences among teachers and these differences may explain differences in the behavior and attitudes of teachers. From the few researches that examined relationships between demographic variables and OCB it is difficult to achieve clear generalizations, since the findings are not unequivocal and are even conflicting (Oplatka, 2006). The variables the researchers posited – gender (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin, and Lord, 2002; Kidder, 2002), nationality (Blakely, Srivastava, and Moorman, 2005; Cohen, 2006; Cohen, 2007), job tenure (Feather and Rauter, 2004; Vigoda, 1995), education (Vigoda, 1995), and family status (Vigoda, 1999) – were found to be related to the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior.

The present research study focuses on the examination of five primary and relevant demographic variables in the teacher's job and examines their relationship to the teachers' OCB and attitudes. These variables are: job tenure, teacher's role experience, education, and scope of the position.

1. The Teacher's Tenure

According to the policy of the Ministry of Education in Israel, the teacher is entitled to receive tenure after three years of employment. Research studies presented conflicting results on the relationship between job tenure and worker attitudes and OCB. A research conducted on employees in banks and hospitals in Singapore found that temporary workers evinced less OCB and commitment to the organization where they worked than did tenured workers. The researchers explain that these workers expected to receive less material and non-material rewards from their employers and thus they do less (Van Dyne and Ang, 1998). Different results were obtained in a research conducted on teachers that found that the teachers with permanent employment had a higher level of OCB than did teachers with a fixed-term contract (Feather and Rauter, 2004). The researchers explained that the temporary teachers reported more job insecurity and tended to adopt behaviors that were not their obligation so as to received tenure and security.

2. Work Experience in the School

Researchers maintain that citizenship behavior in the organization depends on the duration of time in which there is a formal relationship between the worker and the organization. As the worker has worked longer in the organization, his relations with the organization will be more established and his attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior will be more positive (Morrison, 1993; Wagner and Rush, 2000). Support was found in O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), who found that experience is positively related with organizational commitment and extra-role behavior, and in Gregerson (1993), who found that commitment to the organization influences extra-role behavior through the mediating variable of experience. In contrast, other researches found that there is no relationship between work experience and OCB in different organizations (Smith et al., 1983; Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994).

3. The Role in the School

Teachers in the school sometimes have different roles, beyond the teaching role, such as homeroom teacher, subject or grade coordination, etc. It can be hypothesized that the teachers who are responsible for another role beyond the teaching role will possess greater OCB than teachers who do not have another role, since they are more involved in what is happening in the school and feel greater commitment and responsibility. The present research study examines the differences between homeroom teachers, who are responsible for the education and leadership of their classes, and regular teachers. In addition, it examines the differences between teachers in management roles (grade coordinator, subject coordinator, vice-principal, management staff) and regular teachers. The relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and the teacher's role in the school has not yet been examined in a research study, to the best of my knowledge, and thus the research of the topic is important.

4. Education

Vigoda (1999) maintains that the workers with a higher level of education see their role in the broader context and acknowledge the contribution of informal support of the work colleagues and others related to the organization, in comparison to workers with a lower level of education. In his opinion, the teachers with higher education generally staff the more senior positions and roles in the organization and therefore they also perceive the system of exchange with the organization in more social and less economic terms. For them, the economic exchanges are defined and assured through a formal and satisfactory contact with the organization and they are open to the development of social exchange relations. In contrast, teachers with a lower education perceive the exchange relations with the organization in economic terms and they are less open to develop social exchange relations that characterize OCB. Few researches have examined the relationship between education and OCB and from these it is impossible to draw clear conclusions. Smith et al. (1983) found a positive relationship between education and altruistic OCB but not between education and organizational OCB. Gergerson (1993) found a positive relationship between education and extra-role behavior. In contrast, other researches did not find a relationship between education and OCB (Organ and Konovsky, 1989).

5. Position Scope

Researches found that the position scope is related to the worker's behavior and attitudes. Researches indicate that workers with a full-time position are more committed and loyal to the organization than are workers with a part-time position. Peters et al. (1981) and Stamper and Van Dyne (2001) found that part-time workers perform less OCB than do full-time workers. In contrast, Vigoda (1999) did not find a significant relationship between OCB and the position scope.

To summarize the section on OCB and demographic variables, it can be hypothesized that the personal demographic variables will contribute to the explanation of the phenomena of organizational citizenship behavior in a unique and independent manner, although on the basis of existing literature the direction to be hypothesized for each one of the aforementioned variables is not completely clear. Thus, research hypotheses were not formulated but a research question was determined: is there a relationship between the demographic variables of teachers and their organizational citizenship behavior? In addition, the relationships between the teachers' attitudes (commitment to the organization, perceived organizational support, and satisfaction) and the demographic variables are examined.

After the review of the variables on the level of the individual, including attitudes variables and demographic variables, the next section presents the variables on the level of the organization and their impact on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior.

1.5.2 OCB and Variables on the Level of the Organization

Most research studies in the field of organizational citizenship behavior addressed the factors related to the individual and only a small part examined variables on the level of the organization or the group. Researchers note that it is necessary to examine OCB in different contexts, such as organizations, divisions, and groups (Bommer, Miles, and Grover, 2003; Cappelli and Sherer, 1991; Dunlop and Lee, 2004; George, 1990; George and Battenhausen, 1990; Mowday and Sutton, 1993; O'Reilly, 1991; Organ and Ryan, 1995; Schnake and Dumler, 2003; Wilpert, 1995). However, very little is known on the level of the

group and the organization and their relationship to organizational citizenship behavior, since only few researches addressed this level. Bommer, Miles, and Grover (2003, p. 181) stated on this issue, “in contrast to the reasonably well-understood individual level antecedents, the theoretical and empirical portrait of how OCB is influenced by the organizational context remains unclear”.

This level of research explains how workers in the group or in the organization behave in a certain issue in comparison to workers in another organization or group. Researches denoted this phenomenon as the homogeneity model, which is based on the assumption that members of some group share a common fate or experience” (Firebaugh, 1980; Glick and Roberts, 1984). Thus, members of one group or organization behave differently from the members of another group or organization.

The present research examines organizational citizenship behavior as a context-related phenomenon from a multidimensional perspective (Cappelli and Sherer, 1991; Mowday and Sutton, 1993; O'Reilly, 1991, Wilpert, 1995). According to this perception, the workers do not work in a vacuum and the organization has the possibility of encouraging or reducing this behavior (George and Jones, 1997). This perception, which relies on sociology, pays attention to the role of the group as one of the important factors that shape processes of the implementation of the impact in the organizations. The group is perceived as facilitating the shaping of the individual's perceptions, the crystallization of his opinions and attitudes, and his behavior towards the environment (Moukhwas, 1995).

In the research literature, there is evidence of the influences of the group on individuals. For instance, the attitudes of colleagues influence the antisocial behavior of individuals (Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly, 1998) and attitudes towards job termination (Brockner et al., 1997). It should be assumed that a work group might have a similar impact on OCB.

To understand why organizational factors may influence the organizational citizenship behavior two theories that support the organizational aspect of organizational citizenship behavior are presented.

Theories Supporting the Level of the Organization as Related to OCB

First, we present the literature that addresses organizational culture supporting OCB as a context-related phenomenon, according to which the organizational culture has a normative system of shared values and beliefs that shape how organization members feel, think, and behave (Schein, 1990). The organizational culture is defined as the 'should' and 'ought' of organizational life through the accepted values and norms of behavior that derive from them. (Veiga, Lubtakin, Calori, and Very, 2000). According to this approach, OCB can develop due to values and norms of the organization that are shared by all and obligate the person beyond the limited formal role (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2004). George and Battenhausen (1990) emphasize that the group influences the behavior of individuals in the organization if the organization has shared values and norms, which were achieved in shared learning. In this situation, the organization has a shared culture that leads people to act in a similar manner.

Empiric proof of this was found in Simon (1990, 1993) who showed that in learning organizations the degree of OCB was higher than in regular organizations. He explains this in the shared learning following which the workers adopt new values of culture that change their outlook and functioning. The worker extends his personal perception to a systemic perception and his outlook is similar to that of his organization. This systemic approach encourages workers to act in activities related to every organization, for instance, bringing ideas to be improved, volunteering for roles and general tasks, and hence the expectation for behaviors of the OCBO type. In addition, it encourages people to help and support their members to achieve the organization's goals and hence the expectation of OCBI behavior (Senge, 1990, 1993).

Another theory that can explain the impact of the organization is the argument of Bandura (1986), who explains how an entire group behaves in the same way. He maintains "virtually all learning phenomena, resulting from direct experience, can occur vicariously by observing other people's behavior and consequences for them" (Bandura, 1986, p. 19). In other words, in the shared work situation people learn behavior norms from the observation of the behavior of other people. Bandura (1986) defines this as the triadic reciprocity model. According to Wood and Bandura (1989), learning behavior is accomplished through the modeling of others.

Bommer, Miles, and Grover (2003) emphasize that organizational citizenship behavior is acquired through modeling and is related to the impact of the coworkers in the organization. In their opinion, modeling is especially possible in organizations where there is teamwork and cooperation, where the workers are exposed to the attitudes and activities of the others. Researches found that that OCB performances of workers are different in the different organizations and different work groups, according to the organization's traits (Karambayya, 1990; Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacKenzie, 1997; Smith et al., 1983).

The few research studies that examined OCB in the context of the school organization show that there is a significant relationship between the organization's traits and the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001; Keren, 1999). In addition, significant differences were found in the degree of OCB of teachers in schools that acted as a 'learning organization' in comparison to regular schools (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2004). A recent research found that the school trait of collectivism / individualism was related to OCB performances more than variables on the individual level.

1.6 Summary

The review of the literature on the topic of organizational citizenship behavior indicates that OCB is a multidimensional variable, which depends on different factors: factors inside the organization and factors on the level of the individual, when each one of the factors may be related to the performance this behavior. Review of the variables on the level of the individual led to a system of hypotheses and questions on the relationship between teacher attitudes and demographic variables and teacher organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, the level of the organization was defined and an explanation was given on how the variable on the level of the organization may influence the teachers' OCB.

The second part of the review of the literature addresses the main variable in the field of traits of the organization examined in the present research: the writing of school based curricula in autonomous schools. The following review presents the characteristics, traits and school based curricula and then posits the hypotheses on why we expect that this variable will influence the teachers' behavior and attitudes.

2. Curricula in Autonomous Schools

Changes in Western society around the world, and in Israel, have led the shapers of educational policy to perform an organizational reform in regards to the granting of autonomy and self-management to the school. These changes have made the schools into foci of decision and decision making in different areas (Chapman, 1990; Immanuel, 1997; Slegers and Wesslingh, 1995). The need for change derived primarily from the lack of fit between the structure of the school and its environment and from the desire to raise the level of the achievements of the schools through the empowerment of the schools and the development of the schools' uniqueness. The development of autonomous schools is one of the prominent international trends for reform in education that sees in the decentralization in the level of the schools a primary means for the promotion of effective decision making, improvement of inner processes, and use of teaching and learning resources to respond to the unique education needs of every school. These reforms have created opportunities – for the schools, the teachers, and the parents and even the shapers of education – for professional development, the introduction of changes, and the improvement of the educational achievements (Cheng, 2003; Chaeng and Chan, 2000; Chaeng and Cheung, 1999).

2.1 Autonomous Schools: Definitions and Characteristics

The very definition of school autonomy as a perception that emphasizes the uniqueness of the schools makes it difficult to indicate one definition of the autonomous school. However, several characteristics of autonomous schools are accepted by different researchers (Gordon, 1999; Shapira, Goldring, Haymann, and Shavit, 1991).

The autonomous school is an independent pedagogical social system that carries itself, when the focus of the decisions is found in the hands of its members, and it is related to the national general educational system (Ben Yakov, 1984; Gordon, 1990; Reshef, 1990). Silberstein (1990) defines the autonomous school as a planning cell that serves for the making of curricular decisions. In the school decisions are made that pertain to the objectives of education, to the contents of the learning programs, to the teaching methods for the development of learning materials, to the definition and division of roles among the

members of the teaching staff, and to the determination of the manners of the involvement of the students and the parents. In these decision making processes all those who are directly involved in the education process are partners – the teachers, the students, the principal, and the parents. In addition, the autonomous school has a system of relationships and commitments towards the general educational system. Its uniqueness lies in that alongside its position in the general national educational system emphasis is placed in the decision making primarily on unique local considerations. According to Reshef (1990), the autonomous school re-defines the role of the teacher and the teaching staff as acting and responsible for areas that are not related directly to the class and hence the teaching staff has authorities in the topics such as personnel and curricula. These schools provide accounts to the public and not only to the superiors (Chapman and Spinks, 1992; Elmore, 1993).

The literature notes a number of characteristics of the autonomous school, which is an inclusive name for two main areas – pedagogical educational autonomy and organizational budgetary autonomy. Pedagogical autonomy primarily addresses the educational platform, the unique curriculum, and teacher inservice training. The managerial autonomy primarily addresses the realm of the organization and the budgetary autonomy that is expressed in the establishment of school based management (Chapman and Spinks, 1992; Friedman, 1997; Bush, Coleman, and Glover, 1993; Silberstein, Imanuel, and Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1995).

Educational Platform

This is the unique organizational philosophy for the autonomous school that is expressed in the definition of the contents and work methods. The uniqueness can be expressed in the idealist value-oriented character (religious, value-oriented, democratic), pedagogical contents (art, nature, sport), treatment of certain population, or unique teaching methods. The school allows the teachers, the parents, and the community to influence the school goals and to be involved in the realization of the main ideas innate in the definitions of the platform.

The platform includes two main elements: in the first part is the institutional credo that is based on the system of values, life philosophy, and educational outlooks and that includes goals, expectations,

intentions in regards to the figure of the learner in the present and his figure as a graduate in the future. The second part details the educational policy that includes the principles, goals, procedures, and action themes on the school level and on the class level, which are required to achieve the credo. These two elements in the platform fashion the ethos and the culture unique to the institution (Reshef, 1990; Wood, 1983).

The educational platform in its two parts is phrased into a document that reflects the system of beliefs and values according to which the school acts that derives from the unique needs of the school and its population (Bush et al., 1993). He provides the teachers and the principal with a system of guidelines for action in everyday life and a long term policy (Sergiovanni, 1994). The document is disseminated to every person who has a relationship with the school and allows the school to organize and cope with the needs of the students, the teachers, the parents, and the factors in the community (Caldwell and Spinks, 1988).

The Curricula

The autonomous school is entitled to choose the curriculum from the existing selection and can develop independent learning programs that are suited to its educational philosophy. School based curriculum development (SBCD) is the translation of the vision, the school credo, into performance and action, intended to educate the students in the vision and values that the school has determined. Writing school based curriculum is a main expression of the performance of the vision and hence its considerable importance, as will be described in the continuation.

Teacher Inservice Training

The school holds learning for the entire staff to crystallize the school vision into a shared vision and to implement it – curriculum that performs it. In addition, an inservice training program that is aimed at the enrichment of the teachers is conducted. The topics of the learning in the schools can be topics focused on the school and its vision as well as academic topics that are presented by external factors (Golly and Fish, 1980). In both models, there is a contribution to the promotion of the institution, its vision, and the professional development of its teachers (Bradley, 1991; Harley, 1985; Swallow, 1984).

Organizational Structure

The autonomous school has an organizational structure that enables teamwork, through the involvement of the teachers in the activity and in the responsibility. It includes:

- Management staff: Responsible for the initiative for pedagogical changes, coordination, and overall responsibility for the school.
- Forum: An arena for discussions to make shared decisions on the topics of the school and institutional inservice training.
- Work teams of teachers according to projects, classes, etc.
- Community: Participation and involvement of the community in the school activity.

Inspection, Supervision, and Evaluation

The school holds a broad internal system of inspection and evaluation of the professional activity in the school. The evaluation process accompanies the educational activity through all its stages and its goal is to serve the needs of the school in the fields of design, performance, improvement of processes, and assumption of educational responsibility (Levy, 1990; Nevo and Goldblatt, 1988; Reshef, 1990).

Management of the School Budget

The increase of the independence of the principal and the teachers in the realm of the budget – the budgetary autonomy – is expressed in the development of school based management (SBM), which constituted another stage in the development of autonomy in the schools. In the educational literature, there is no consensus regarding the accepted definition of school based management. However, most researchers maintain that self-management of the school is a pattern of educational management in which the school becomes an independent focus of decision making and independent activities. It has the following characteristics: autonomous authority to solve his problems and make decisions in regards to budgets, curricula, personnel, in the framework of the policy themes of the country. The staff has the responsibility and commitment to the decisions and results. In the school there are forums and committees that act together to achieve the school goals. In the school there are multi-directional and open channels of communication. The school environment is supportive and acts from openness, transparency, and ability to implement changes in the school and

mechanisms of self-evaluation and feedback (Conway and Calzi, 1996; Covey, 1997; Gaziel, Borgler, and Nir, 2005; Volansky, 2003; Volansky and Friedman, 2003).

This research focuses on a main realm that characterizes the autonomous schools – the writing of school based curriculum. According to researchers, curricula are the meaningful purpose of the autonomous school, since it is the translation of the school vision – the credo of the school – into the mode of action by the school staff (Gaziel, 2002). As Friedman (1990, p. 17) cites “the curriculum and the teacher are found at the focus of the autonomy”.

Hence, one of the main goals of the research is derived: to examine the relationship between autonomous schools with school based curriculum and the attitudes and behavior of the teachers, with the purpose to extend the theoretical and empirical knowledge on the factors that may influence the activity, attitudes, and behavior of teachers in the schools. Before we expand on the meaning of the writing of school based curriculum that makes the autonomous schools special, we first seek to understand what are the changes that led to the school autonomy that enabled the autonomous schools to write school based curriculum.

2.2 The Background of the Development of Autonomous Schools

Significant changes and reforms that began in the past decades led the educational systems around the world in general and in Israel in particular to tension and conflict between two methods of school management: the traditional centralization model and the decentralization model (Volansky and Friedman, 2003).

The centralization model developed in the 1800s with the goal of achieving social equality for all the strata in the population through education. The trend of the centralization of authorities in the hands of the country was strengthened in many countries, after in the 1960s and 1970s the prevalent opinion was that administrative centralization is a desired pattern for coping with problems created after the Second World War (OECD, 1986). Centralization enabled teachers to be recruited, schools to be built, and equipment to be purchased in a short period of time. Most of the industrialized countries were characterized by a high level of centralization, which was intended to ensure education services

through the preservation of values of uniformity and equality. In this way, the political system has the ability to control the inputs that the schools receive, to define a level of expectations and outputs from the schools. In addition, the centralized model allows the central government to ensure that all the learners in the system are exposed to similar norms and values and thus to increase the processes of socialization for the cultural, social, and political ethos that the local government is interested in establishing (Nir, 2001; Weick, 1976).

The model of centralization was effective to a certain point and beyond this point it became ineffective and awkward. Beginning in the 1960s criticism was voiced towards the general and educational processes of centralization: the centralization created huge bureaucratic organizations that create a sense of awkwardness and lack of control, since objectively centralized organizations find it difficult to provide an appropriate and fast solution to local needs, because of the distance between the policy shapers and the field. In this situation, the argument was that bureaucratic mechanisms neutralize the initiative and creation of the worker in the organization to the point that the achievement of the organizations' goals may be detrimentally affected (Fridman, 1962; Gamble, 1985). In regards to education, arguments were posited that the centralized structure makes it difficult for the schools to achieve their goals since, as the organization is larger and more complex, there are great inner contradictions. In addition, schools and teachers are required to fill requirements and pressures of outside factors that come from above and change periodically according to new governments, reforms, committees that seek to change programs. Consequently, the student, his needs, the school, and the community are not in the center (Hallak, 1991; Hill and Bonan, 1991; OECD, 1989).

Another argument was that the expansion of the educational system lessened the effective supervision of the state over the educational system as well as the initiative and motivation of the teachers. The public criticism of the quality of education and the involvement of different factors such as teachers, parents, and educational councils led to a process of decentralization, which reflects the transfer of authorities from the center to the periphery, from the high ranks to the lower ones. According to this perception, the educational institution and its educators are given most of the means for the realization of its educational initiatives so as to enable development and

promotion of achievements (Gaziel, Borgler, and Nir, 2005; Volansky and Friedman, 2003). The supporters of the autonomy approach in education relied on two primary sources: the one that learning from business organizations that experienced crises because of a competitive market and succeeded in surviving and even excelling and the other learning from effective schools that succeeded in improving the students' achievements and increasing the equality in education.

The researches on excelling organizations showed that these organizations succeeded in recruiting the workers to a shared vision, in determining organizational values, in defining shared performance objectives, and in adopting decentralization steps (Argyris, 1982; Drucker, 1977; Gamble, 1985). These researches saw the individual in the organization as a source of energy and motivation for success and change (Handy, 1988; McGregor, 1985). The researches performed in effective schools found that the students' achievements rose when administrative changes were conducted in the schools. These schools had a shared educational vision, clear definition of goals, accompanied by work methods, adjusted curriculum, a system of evaluation and feedback on the goals, and considerable responsibility of teachers (Bashi et al., 1990; Caldwell and Spinks, 1998; Chen, 1995; Cheng, 1996). The effective schools succeeded in increasing their influence on students, unlike findings from previous researches that found that the student's home as a decisive and more considerable impact on his achievements than the school impact (Jencks, 1973; Kerensky, 1975). One of the summative researches performed on effective schools found that the shared goals and vision have a main role in the success of the schools and that the effective schools functioned as 'learning organizations' (Sammons, 1999). In these schools, the teachers and the principals hold a regular learning process in which they are updated in the fields of learning according to their personal needs and the school needs. These findings became central characteristics in autonomous schools.

These two sources (successful organizations and effective schools) led to the increase of the school autonomy, assuming that when the figures close to the student make decisions, crystallize solutions, and assume responsibility for the achievements, and not external supervisory factors, then this will lead to the success of the schools. This process, which has lasted for the past decades, is laden with difficulties and

tensions, since as a result the power of the centralized mechanisms and their heads is reduced (Volansky and Friedman, 2003).

In Israel, the educational system was constructed as a centralized system with clear objectives that aspire to equality and social cultural integration (Anaby, 1988). This system did not suit the changing needs of the State of Israel from the 1980s. These needs included technological changes, the strengthening of the local authorities, social and national polarization that awakened national controversy regarding the educational path of the Ministry of Education, the steadily increasing involvement of the community, and the requirement of the educational system for greater autonomy for the teachers and for the schools.

The decentralization that began in the 1980s was perceived as a means of coping with the shortcomings of the educational system of that time – passiveness, dependence on receiving directives from the higher rank, lack of involvement, and poor motivation of the teacher in the general system. At the beginning of the decentralization, authorities were given to schools that were ‘autonomous’ in the areas of the planning of the studies and organizational structural. Later, with the encouragement of governmental policy, from the 1990s, other fields were decentralized, primarily the realm of budget and personnel, and patterns of action of self-managing schools were crystallized and led many schools to join this framework (Chen, 1997; Gibton, 2002; Gordon, 1999).

The educational perception that led to the transfer of educational authorities to the schools and to the community aspired to change the system so that it would suit itself to the pluralistic society. It was recognized that a centralized educational system could not provide the variety of educational needs of society (Chen, 1995; Friedman, Barama, and Thorne, 1997; Hayman and Shapira, 1994; Inbar, 1995). Both elementary and secondary schools have exploited the advantages of this official policy (Friedman, 1990; Gordon, 1987), when in the elementary schools there are many more changes in comparison to the high schools, due to the possibility of making the curriculum more flexible to a great extent (Silberstein, 1987).

As aforementioned, the most major expression of school autonomy is the ability of the school to execute and realize the vision, the educational belief of its teachers, or in other words, to write a school

based curriculum. The following section explains this concept and its significance.

2.3 School Based Curriculum

School based curriculum is a concept that has been a focus of change and development in light of the development of autonomy in the schools, which has brought with it a main requirement for the development of school based curricula, suited to the individual needs of the school and constructed with the involvement of the staff (Gaziel, 2002; Kaspy, 1983; March and Wills, 1999). In the educational system in Israel, three main arguments were raised in favor of the transition to approaches of local curriculum development. Every one of the arguments reflects the attitude of different factors.

1. The socio-cultural changes in Israel society, which are characterized by the transition from the perception of national uniformity to a democratic, pluralistic, multicultural society, led to the emphasis on issues with a local or community focus and encouraged schools to insert new and unique contents suited to the needs of their community and society. This argument reflects the attitude of the shapers of the educational policy, who see the school as a training device for the re-shaping of the society. According to this perception, the schools must reflect the socio-cultural changes that occur in society at large and adjust accordingly (Cuban, 1990).
2. The professional status of the teachers. From the 1980s, the teachers have become more educated and more experienced in the issues of the planning of the studies. Therefore, they also are capable of assuming responsibility in these realms. This argument is primarily supported by the factors close to the professional associations of the teachers.
3. The lack of effectiveness of the complicated and bureaucratic education network, which characterizes centralized systems. This argument echoed voices from the system of local government against the centralized government of the country.

The very definition of the autonomous school as found in a connection with the nationwide educational system but defined as

independent from a pedagogical perspective indicates that this school enjoys pedagogical autonomy and fashions its curriculum according to its unique needs yet conversely is not exempt from the fulfillment of the requirements of the nationwide system (Silberstein, 1990). In other words, alongside the development of learning materials, the determination of manners of involvement of the students and the parents, and the development of the educational program of the school, the school identifies with the supra-goals of Israeli society, receives the support of the centralized system, and enjoys the resources that the system places at its disposal.

The integration between the two trends is possible due to the structure of the studies that includes three categories of the planning of the studies:

1. Compulsory program, generally in the basic subjects – language arts, English, and arithmetic. This is shared by all the schools with the goal of creating uniformity and influenced by the national needs and the aspirations of society.
2. Elective program – elective subjects that the school chooses according to its needs.
3. Optional subjects with the goal of creating diversity and uniqueness among the schools.

In the optional program and in the integrative subjects the autonomous schools have the possibility of developing school curricula that express the school's unique educational credo, which crystallizes in a long process of the presentation of the needs and desires of those who are directly involved in the educational process. These needs and desires receive relatively considerable weight and their impression is apparent in the curriculum in the school. (Gaziel, 2002).

The educational literature presents different definitions of school based curriculum based on different approaches. A narrow definition sees in the planning of the school studies autonomous decisions that the principal and the school staff make on the implementation of curricular products (the formal curricula), which were prepared by extra-school factors (Gaziel, 2002). A broad definition sees school based curriculum development to be a process of decision making that encompasses all the activities of design, development, and evaluation of curricula in the school. This is a process that involves factors that are related to activities in the school and that are interested in being involved –

experts, supervisors, principals, teachers, students, parents, and other factors in the community. The broad definition is in effect on all the educational experiences, which occur within the school walls, including issues that do not appear to be directly related to the planning of the studies, such as the organization of social life and inservice training (Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1990).

According to Skilbeck (1984), the school with school based curriculum development engages in the planning, fashioning, implementation, and evaluation of the curricula. This process is accompanied by shared learning, in which the goals and values of the school are discussed and decisions are made in regards to the choice and organization of materials. During the process, changes occur in the school climate.

Schwab (1983) maintains that school based curriculum development is the development of new materials, which includes a collection of scholastic activities and learning materials that were crystallized with the involvement of teachers and students. The success of these materials is measured in their products, when the legitimization of their existence is their relationship to the student's life.

Sabar Ben Yehoshua (1997) emphasizes that the focus of the decision making in the school itself is found in the process of the school based curriculum development. It addresses the constellation of the educational and scholastic experiences that the school offers its students at all levels. In addition to the teachers, students, parents, representatives of the community, and outside experts may also take part in school based curriculum development.

Kaspy (1988) notes that the main product of school based curriculum development is not the program itself but the real chance of the development of the teacher's abilities, which is a key factor in the improvement and implementation of the teaching culture. The teamwork and constant learning process entailed by school based curriculum development allow cooperation among the teachers to exchange and evaluate ideas, which creates a special school existence.

In all the definitions, there is a common element – the school based curriculum development exists when the focus of the decision making on the design, development, implementation, and evaluation of

the curricula is found in the school itself. The narrow meaning of school based curriculum development is the situation in which the educational staff makes decisions in regards to the adoption or rejection of curricula developed outside of it. The broad meaning of school based curriculum development is the situation in which the autonomous school holds a comprehensive and intensive process of the planning of the studies. This includes self-formulation of the platform and ideas – after the identification of needs and the creation of means for the realization of the objectives of education on the level of the structure of the studies and the organizational structure of the school. The different processes of decision making are accompanied by an institutional mechanism of learning that accompanies the planning process and allows the continuation of the pedagogical existence of school based curriculum development. This type of view is an organic integrative view that allows ‘a view from the inside’. Namely, this is a view when the starting point is the educational philosophy, the declared and unique credo of the school, which constitutes a document that leads to action in light of which the action program and work are constructed (Gaziel, 2002; March and Wills, 1999; Silberstein, Immanuel, and Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1995; Wellins et al., 1991).

The present research addresses the broad definition of school based curriculum development (Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1990, 1997; Silberstein, 1990) and the broad meaning that derives from this definition. The result of the school based curriculum development is not only the program itself, since teachers can never compete with the quality of commercial curricula, but also the perception that the main meaning of the school based curriculum development is the possibility to develop and to promote the teacher and the teaching staff (Kaspy, 1988). According to Kaspy (1988), in the work method and the shared learning a special school existence is created that expresses a certain course of thought that a school curriculum can reflect. Additional researchers (e.g. Huberman, 1992; Young, 1990) share this opinion.

Accordingly, the present research attempts to examine, theoretically and empirically, whether there will be differences in the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes of teachers who work in schools with school based curriculum in comparison to schools without school based curriculum (regular schools), a topic that to the best of my knowledge has not yet been researched in the educational

literature. More specifically, the research seeks to examine the variable of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the organization, which will be detailed in the following chapter of the review of the literature. To understand why these differences are expected we now describe in greater depth the meaning of the 'credo' or vision that is based on the unique educational philosophy or belief that led to the writing of school based curriculum. In the continuation, the chapter explains what are the implications and why are differences expected in the behavior and attitudes of teachers who teach in schools in comparison to teachers who work in regular schools.

2.4 The Philosophy or Vision of Schools with School Based Curricula and Its Contribution

As stated previously, a school that writes school based curriculum relies on a philosophy or vision. We address the clarification of the concept and its implications on the teacher and staff. Melitz (1996) explains this concept through the presentation of a model comprised of three interrelated parts: general philosophy, educational philosophy, and normative philosophy of education.

According to the definition of the different philosophies, it is necessary to clarify the concept of 'education', since a philosophy of education is the implementation of philosophy on education. Melitz (1996) maintains that education includes three criteria:

1. The word education refers to the inculcation of **values**: Education aspires to achieve something of worth and the word education refers to the values that are involved or inculcated in education.
2. Education addresses the training of the student to be a person with a **rational** mindset, who can choose and observe the world critically: the ability to **choose** from appropriate considerations necessitates cognitive ability and education for choice means to learn the ways of thinking and standards in different areas so that they can decide accordingly.
3. Education includes learning processes that require **actions** and its object is to bring about change in people's behavior and to create in people norms of desired behavior (Avinun, 1984; Lamm, 1973).

It can be said that education includes the value-oriented actions that were intended to train the student to have knowledge and understanding and ability to look at the world in a critical manner. (Melitz, 1996). Peters (1979) on this issue clarifies that in the expression ‘educated’ person the intention is not only to a person who has knowledge or special ability but he must have understanding of principles that can be of use to the organization of the facts. In other words, he needs to understand the reason of existence of things. The source of these two abilities of knowledge and understanding is **philosophy**. A school that is interested in inculcating in it students these two abilities relies on philosophy, which is the basis of its action.

General philosophy is an important element in education. It is reflected in the constellation of the decisions of the school and influences its goals. General philosophy asks essential questions of every person and of educators in particular regarding the nature of reality, truth, and values. Different people give different responses and they are the basis of the existence of different philosophies, which determine the person’s outlooks. Philosophy presents life in a broad view and engages in many aspects of life and in the way in which we organize our thoughts it clarifies personal beliefs and attitudes, defends values, and creates a framework for the process of decision making. According to Van Til (1965), general philosophy is important to the life of the school especially in our time, when things rapidly and frequently change. “Our source of direction is found in our guiding philosophy ... without philosophy (we make) mindless vaults into the saddle like Stephen Leacock’s character who flung himself from the room, flung himself upon his horse, and rode madly off in all directions”. (p. 9)

A school with school based curriculum is a school that relies on clear general philosophy, which was selected and which is accepted by the staff and it paves the way, it’s the lighthouse that shows the direction in which the teachers step. Even if it was brought by an outside person, it becomes accepted and even ‘sacred’ by the members of the team, unlike staff that relies on a general curriculum that reflects a general philosophy of its writers and the teachers who teach it do not necessarily agree with it or are committed to it.

Educational philosophy is a system of **values** that influences the goals of education, the methods of education, and the educational means. It provides answers on issues of education to questions of

general philosophy that are discussed. The educator crystallizes for himself answers to questions of general philosophy and they serve as a basis upon which its educational philosophy is constructed. Educational philosophy answers questions such as the following. For whom is the school intended? What are the topics and subjects of the learning? What is the figure of desired graduate? Which methods and materials of learning should be used? Educational philosophy is a primary source for the determination of the education goals, since values demand of us a position – positive, negative, or indifferent. Every action of calculated preference is based on the use of values (Simon, 1964). The creation of a school based curriculum is a significant action of preference, in which the teachers choose among alternatives. There is no real possibility to build and to determine goals of education without the preliminary clarification of values and beliefs that serve as a standard of this preference. When the school staff writes school based curriculum, the teachers together experience the process in which they choose and are partners in the same educational doctrine that influences the system of values accepted by all. These values are the initial basis for the determination of the educational goals and activity that derives from them.

It is possible to say that educational philosophy has a number of roles:

1. It serves as a primary source for the determination of education goals. The goals influence the choice of the education methods and the educational means that the teachers will use, since values lead to activity.
2. According to Dewey (1959), educational philosophy helps educators see with a broad view of reality and pulls them out from sinking into the everyday routine. Thus, it allows the men of action to do their work in a freer spirit through the release from the bounds of tradition and the routine according to their personal tendencies.
3. It helps educators choose the goals, taking into consideration the individual social needs, the structure of the scholastic needs, and the psychological theories that are taken into consideration in educational activity.

It can be said that the staff that writes school based curriculum is a staff that is crystallized around shared values that derive from belief

and a uniform philosophy, which allow him to decide on the relevant accepted goals. This allows the teachers creativity, a free hand, and disengagement from tradition and routine, which are determined by the general curriculum that is dictated by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The possibility of creating, of being unique and creative according to the teacher's desire and belief, leads the teachers to realize the desires and needs and thus it can be hypothesized that this will be expressed in their behavior, as the present research attempts to examine.

The educational activity is expressed in the third element in the model of Melitz (1996) – **normative philosophy**. Melitz (1996) maintains that the activity draws from the general philosophy that serves as one important element of a number of aspects that influence the determination of educational goals, since it is not possible to educate and act without the general philosophy. In addition, the value educational philosophy, including far more than the impacts of the general philosophy, influences it. The educational philosophy can be analytic or normative. If it is normative, it is intended to analyze, to clarify, and to critique our thinking on education and if it is normative, when it addresses values and traits that should be cultivated in the learner, methods and curricula that will lead to the result, to the desired behavior (Pratte, 1983).

According to Frankena (1956), the normative philosophy needs to respond to three basic questions:

1. What are the traits that it is necessary to cultivate in the learner?
2. Why are these traits considered beneficial and appropriate to teach?
3. How and what are the methods and processes to cultivate these?

In the process that accompanies the writing of school based curriculum the teachers answer these questions. In their responses, they rely on a shared general philosophy that provides guidelines to the educational act. This is an educational philosophy of the school that is the source of the values that are accepted therein, through which they will lead to the normative philosophy of the school, which will aspire to cultivate and promote the traits and lead to the desired behaviors of the students and the teachers – namely behavior and doing. The topic is concretized by giving one example of school based curricula. In one of the schools researched in the present research, the school based curriculum addresses the topic of the land of Israel. The general

philosophy from which the teachers draw relies on passages of information from different sources: Biblical sources, philosophical sources, rabbinical sources, poets and authors, politicians and statesmen, and artists. From these sources the teachers 'cut' educational values that are accepted by the staff – and they are the educational philosophy, for instance, the importance of the knowledge of the land and its vistas, the importance of living in Israel, love of the country, love of the country's vistas, appreciation of culture and of different people and different artists in the country, the emotional relationship of the Jew to his homeland, etc. The normative philosophy is the behavior; in other words, what is the desired behavior to achieve the goals and it is expressed in trips around the country, in meetings with people who implement different forms of settlements, planting trees, etc.

It should be emphasized that the main goal of the writing of school based curriculum is to educate and to lead to the students' activity. However, in parallel, as the research studies note it has impact on and contribution to the teacher himself as an individual and on the entire teaching staff as a group. The researchers note that the teacher also is a student who is subject to the problem of his existence, growth, and development – his way of teaching of his students and their education for actions is also the way of the teacher to learn, develop, and act (Lamm, 1973; Moustakas, 1972). Therefore, the same process that leads to doing and to the change of behavior among students is, in parallel, also in effect in regards to the educating teachers. Moreover, the researchers maintain that in such a school there will be a change in the entire staff of teachers, as a group, due to the special school existence of such a staff (Gaziel, 2002; Kaspy, 1988; Sabar, 1997; Silberstein, 1990; Silberstein, Immanuel, and Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1995).

On this background, we base the hypothesis on the expected differences in behavior and attitudes of teachers in schools that developed school based curriculum in comparison to those in regular schools. Schools that rely on a general and educational philosophy lead the teachers and students to behavior norms special to them and different from those of regular schools. These teachers who based their work on a 'credo' and vision are motivated by the enthusiasm of belief, which is a strong motivating factor. The belief and fire lead the teacher to more significant work, even work that includes tasks that are not part

of his role. Moreover, the vision, the philosophy, and values are not of a single teacher but are shared by an entire staff of people who accept them.

According to Senge (1995), a shared vision instills the courage to do what is necessary to actualize it. It promotes the aspirations of people and the work becomes a part of the aspiration to a greater goal that is embodied in the organization's products, services, and even atmosphere and spirit therein. A vision is refreshing and it sets off the spark; it causes excitement and raises the organization from the gray everyday routine to creativity and activity. Senge (1995) further asserts that a shared vision changes the system of relations among the workers in the organization so that the workers will say 'our organization' and not 'their organization'. It leads people to work together, to trust one another. It can be said that it creates a shared identity and the desire to act greatly to achieve its goals (Maslow, 1965; Senge, 1995).

Teachers Develop School Based Curricula as Teachers from the Development Model

Another perspective of the research argument can be found in Lamm (1973), who presents three models of teaching. According to Lamm (1973), the teacher who develops and writes school based curriculum himself is a teacher from the 'development model'. This fact has influence on the teachers' attitudes and behaviors. The relevant models and their implications are presented in this section.

Lamm (1973) presents three theories of thinking on the teaching: the pattern of imitation, the pattern of shaping, and the pattern of development. Each one of the theories represents a whole perception of the nature of the teaching, its goals, the teacher's role, and his traits. We review the two theories relevant to the issue at hand – the model of imitation versus the model of development.

The model of **imitation** reflects the attempt to transfer knowledge from one person to another. The teacher's role is to convey knowledge or skills to his students. Piaget (1970) calls this the 'absorption' or 'transference' method by the teacher. Freire (1971) calls this teaching 'depositing', a term that is derived from the banking term, according to which the knowledge is deposited in the child's mind just like people deposit their money in the bank. The teacher in the imitation model only

performs the instructions given to him by his superiors and he holds the position of an employee. The teacher has power and authorities in regards to his students but he has limited power to choose goals and ways of performing the teaching. In these topics, his role is limited to the performance of goals and ways that were determined by others. The teacher is dependent on the public and he is subject to the supervision of people who have the authority to evaluate and judge his work. The teachers in this model are subordinate to the curriculum determined by external factors and they cannot alter it. These teachers, according to Lamm (1973), are devoid of initiative and creativity and they do not have the willingness to make changes.

In contrast, the **development model** is suitable for the definition of the teacher who builds the curriculum himself. In this model, it is necessary to adjust the knowledge contents to the student's needs instead of seeking ways to adjust the student to the types of teaching chosen. The goals of the teaching are determined according to a model of the person who functions in society normally (imitation) but according to the needs of the developing individual. In this perception, the teacher is considered an **expert**, and the teaching a profession. The teacher's expertise is educational and he is expected to know and to act according to the professional considerations in a way that will support the development of his students. The teacher has authorities and must make broad decisions because of his expertise. He decides on the goals of his action, the contents of the studies, and the way of learning.

According to Lamm (1973), it is possible to address teachers who write school based curriculum as a teacher in the development model. This is a teacher who is not committed to the curriculum determined by others but he himself according to his philosophy develops the vision that leads to the writing. In this process, the teacher attempts the learning experiences himself, he develops due to the power of the philosophy that he accepted from the power of his beliefs and attitudes and not from the force of the definition of the role and status. In the same way, he acts with his students: he encourages them to develop values, beliefs, and insights. The teacher is liberated, open, and encourages to be himself and more active, to achieve his goals. The teacher, who is also a student, does not act in the way predetermined by others but in his way (Moustakas, 1972). The different perceptions of teaching allow three possibilities of motivation. In the development

model the motivation is based on self-motivation – the self control of the students. The motivation develops as a result of the reciprocal relations between the individual and his environment.

According to Lamm (1973), teaching that is based on the students' self-regulation is different from any other teaching: it sees the drive for activity to be an inborn trait and if the child is allowed, then he will want to realize this drive to achieve satisfaction. Every other learning, for instance through training, temptation, prizes, will cause the loss of curiosity, enjoyment of activity, and willingness to rely on the inner intention. When a student learns the motives of himself, the preferences that are between the different motives, he will act from inner power and not from direction from outside. This holds true for the teacher and for the person, who needs and must be free to choose to find and go his way (Holt, 1970).

A last point to address in the comparison of the models for teaching is the activities. As asserted previously, every teaching leads to actions and to change of the behavior. In every type of learning it is expected that the student will do something and the products of the learning are the change of behavior. According to the model of imitation, the student needs to listen so as to know. The main thing of the learning is the listening, the seeing. In the development model the teaching is based on the students' self-motivation and self-control and therefore the student himself acts and is responsible for his actions. In the model of imitation the following question is asked. What should the teacher do so that the student will learn? In contrast, in the development model the question is as follows. What should the student do so that he will learn? The response is that he must act according to his self-motivation and self-control. The teacher's role in this situation is to provide an abundance of stimuli in a rich environment so that the student will act. This type of learning allows the learner satisfaction that originates in the activity and realization of his personal desires. So too the teacher, who acts in the development model, is different from the teacher in the imitation model. The teacher who writes the curriculum in the school relies on his own sense of direction and acts accordingly. According to Lamm (1973), this teacher will want and be motivated to act in a way that he chooses will lead him to considerable action that leads him to satisfaction.

The Sudbury Valley School (1970) summarizes that the intellectual and emotional needs are unique for every person. Only the person himself knows what are his needs. When a student learns in a school that allows him to realize his needs, he will want to learn and act. So too the teacher – he will want to learn, to act, and thus the teacher and the student are allowed to progress towards the goals they have set for themselves rapidly and responsibly. This will give them satisfaction.

The teachers themselves developed the vision, which is commensurate with their desires, and wrote it in the curriculum and orderly work, including goals, objectives, and ways of implementation. These teachers, who are ‘developers’ and not ‘imitators’, will take much action to realize their vision and motives. This type of environment will promote positive attitudes towards the workplace and will encourage teachers to perform OCB in the school. We hypothesize that there will be differences between teachers in the schools who developed school based curricula and teachers in the regular school, both in terms of their attitudes and in terms of their behavior. These teachers will be willing to do more and go beyond what is required of their position and will have higher attitudes than will teachers who in the framework of their jobs did not develop school based curricula.

At this point, it is important to emphasize the crystallization of the vision, the philosophy, and the values. For these to be accepted by all the team, a process of shared learning is performed, which is a part of the characteristics of the autonomous school, as previously cited (Bush, Coleman, and Golver, 1993; Chapman and Spinks, 1992; Friedman, 1997; Silberstein, Immanuel, and Sabar Ben Yehoshua, 1995). In these schools, the teachers crystallized a shared vision, which is translated to school based curriculum, due to the shared learning of the school staff, and hence it is possible to address these organizations as ‘learning organizations’ (Sammons, 1999).

2.5 Schools with School Based Curricula as ‘Learning Organizations’

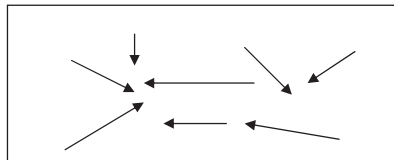
According to Senge (1995), the creation of a true shared vision by all the teachers is possible only in the learning organization, as it exists in autonomous schools. The learning organization is an organization in which the workers collect, learn, analyze, disseminate, and appreciate information. In the first stage, the information is analyzed by the

members of the organization and then agreement is crystallized and the information becomes the shared asset of the entire organization (Popper and Lipshitz, 1999, 2000).

According to the approach in the present research study, the learning organization is an organization in which the “members actively use data to guide behavior so as to promote the ongoing adaptation of the organization” (Edmondson and Moingeon, 1998, p. 9). This approach sees the trait of the learning organization to be a trait of an organization that differentiates it from other organizations. This organization possesses shared values that cultivate learning, investigation, and loyalty to the organization, which lead to behaviors different from those of organizations that do not engage in learning. This attribute is part of the organizational existence and culture that characterizes the autonomous schools and it influences and contributes to the organization.

Senge (1995) differentiates between learning organizations and regular organizations. In the learning organization, the workers are considered as a constellation – a group of people who function as a whole entity and act to achieve shared goals. In contrast, in many organizations where the group is not ‘prepared’ the members’ energy acts in contradictory directions. In these organizations, the group is a collection of people with the ability to achieve results that range in different directions. Such an organization can be described in the following figure.

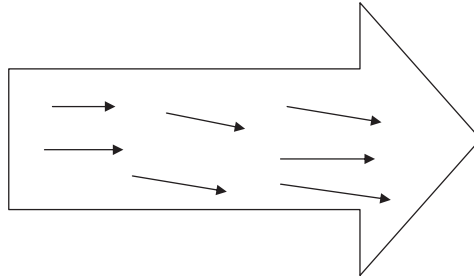
Figure Number 1:
The Regular Organization



In contrast, in the learning organization, the group is more ‘prepared’. There is uniformity in direction and the members’ energy is directed more harmoniously. The waste of the energy is small and synergy develops, like the light of a laser beam as opposed to the light

of a regular electric bulb. Among the members of the groups unity of goal, a shared vision, and understanding how to complement one another are created. The following figure presents a picture of this organization (Senge, 1995).

Figure Number 2:
The Learning Organization



In the learning process, the personal visions of the staff are crystallized into a shared vision. In other words, there is expression of the desires of the individuals who function in the organization. The learning of the group is a process of preparation and development of the group ability to achieve results in which the members are truly interested. In the schools with school based curricula there is regular learning that is intended to develop the vision, to write the school based curriculum, and to update it regularly. This process, which does not eliminate the individual, brings the group to impressive results, to development, and to creative activity. It can be said that the organization that holds learning has three main dimensions: the group learns to realize the potential of many minds and to be more intelligent than one mind. Innovative and coordinated activities are held. The learning group influences other people in the organization in a regular manner (Senge, 1995).

Therefore, there is a basis for the research hypothesis that maintains that teachers in these schools will perform more than teachers in regular schools. Senge (1995) further notes that such an organization develops commitment in the long term – commitment of workers to the organization. Since to achieve a shared vision it is necessary to experience a process with all the staff, when the workers accept the

vision, it becomes a perception of all the members and they are committed to it (Senge, 1990, 1993). It can be said about the schools that there is a fit between the person and his work and overlap between the person's personal values and the group values of the school. The researchers note that this overlap is based on elements – the personality element of the workers and the element of the organizational culture, which together lead to significant organizational products (Barleny, Mayer, and Gash, 1988; O'Reilly, 1989; Schein, 1985; Smircich, 1983).

Empirical findings showed that the fit between a person and his place of work leads to more positive feelings among the workers, their commitment to the organization is increased, their satisfaction grows, and their performances improve (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1990; Megilino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Spokane 1985).

2.6 Autonomous Schools in the Area of School Based Curriculum in the Mirror of Research

Most of the researches that engaged in autonomy in schools examined the relationship between autonomy and school effectiveness, which is expressed primarily in the students' achievements, and few have emphasized the examination of the teachers in the process (Gaziel, 2002; Gaziel, Borgler, and Nir, 2005). The reason lies in the fact that one of the main goals of decentralization was the desire to improve the school effectiveness and therefore the considerable engagement in the examination of this variable (Caldwell and Spinks, 1988; David, 1989; Hopkins, 1987; Purky and Smith, 1985; Volansky and Friedman, 2003). However, as noted previously, the pedagogical school autonomy may have considerable impact on the teachers, their attitudes, and their behavior, as the present research endeavors to discover.

In the theoretical literature, it is possible to find many arguments praising school autonomy and its positive impact on teachers. The researchers maintain that these schools have a more positive organizational culture than traditional schools and are characterized by a high level of initiative, aspiration to innovations, independent activity, and a sense of challenge. The teachers in these schools have a high level of cooperation in all that pertains to the work in the institution to determine its policy and goals and they fell responsibility for what occurs in the school (Darling-Hammond and Wise, 1992; Friedman, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2001; Sharan, Shachar, and Levin, 1998; Weick,

1976). Autonomy is ascribed a contribution to the increase of the teachers' commitment, because of the increase of their inner motivation, and it among the main reasons that led educational systems to decentralize and delegate authorities to schools (Sleegeers and Wessenligh, 1995; Wholstetter and McCurdy, 1991). According to Sharan (1986), the teachers in the autonomous schools are found in an unending process of learning and self renewal, due to the learning that accompanies their work. In these schools, the teachers' feeling is characterized by a high morale, empowerment, high level of commitment, and great satisfaction (Gaziel, 2002).

In comparison to the theoretical information, the empirical information is limited in scope. The research literature lacks empirical evidence that concretizes through repetitive measurements the impact of the autonomy in general and the pedagogical autonomy in particular on the attitudes and behaviors of teachers. The results are limited, ambiguous, and sometimes contradictory (Davies and Hentschke, 1994; Summers and Johnson, 1994).

Some of the findings indicate that the members of the staff in the schools have continued to act and behave as they did before the transition to autonomy (Sackney and Dibsiki, 1994). Others indicate that the school autonomy has impact on the different processes related to the teachers. For instance, Globeman and Harrison (1987) found that autonomous schools with a decentralized organizational structure have group decision making processes, effective teamwork, a school vision, pedagogical autonomy, an open climate, and human relations based on reciprocal trust. In the schools that developed and implemented school based curriculum it was found that the teachers clearly know the school educational philosophy (Ezer, 1986) and they are characterized by a democratic organizational structure (Sharan, 1986). This structure enables open relationships for all direction of good communication and teamwork. In these schools the teachers were partners in the making of decisions (Amar, 2006; Conley and Bacharach, 1990; Harrison, 1981), the moral is high (Amar, 2006; Darling-Hammond and Wise, 1985; David, 1989; Levin, 1998); there is delegation of authorities to the teachers (Hallinger and Hausman, 1993); there is reduction of intra-organizational conflicts (Ingersoll, 1996); good social relations (Smith, 1993); and cohesion and trust among the staff members (Lange, 1993). Another significant point is the degree of responsibility, commitment,

and motivation to the activities and to the students' achievements, which was found to be relatively high in these schools (Clune and White, 1988; Cohen, 1996; David, 1989; Duttweiler and Mutchler, 1990; Ezer, 1986; Haberman, 1982; Hill and Bonan, 1991). It was also found that the sense of empowerment of teachers in autonomous schools is higher than that of teachers in regular schools (Darling-Hammond and Coleman, 1993; Mezamer Tov, 2004) and their satisfaction (Amar, 2006; Coleman, 1993; Rosenholtz, 1987). In addition, it was found that a school with teachers who have developed school based curriculum reported "high value on professional growth and adult learning opportunities; teachers have requested and are encouraged to attend a variety of workshops and professional conferences" (Glasser, 2000, p. 341).

2.7 Summary

The second part of the review of the literature shows that schools that wrote school based curricula have unique characteristics that differentiate them from regular schools. In these schools, which are learning organizations, the teachers develop their vision to the shared vision of all. The fact that the vision is a result of development, not imitation, that it derives from the teachers themselves and is based on an accepted general and educational philosophy that becomes the belief of all, changes the school existence and culture, and this influences the attitudes and actions of the individuals who work therein. The process of the writing of the school based curriculum that expresses the implementation of the vision to activity indicates a number of unique characteristics of these schools: the teachers themselves developed and fashioned the school based curricula and in this situation the curricula meet the needs and suit the beliefs of the teachers. Thus, there is fit between the needs and values of the teacher as individuals and those of the school. When there is such fit between the worker and the organization, the emotional relationships of the individual with the organization grows stronger and the person feels affective commitment and value congruence commitment (Megilino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991). In addition, since the school based curricula express the individual's needs and values, the teacher's need for self-realization is fulfilled and the satisfaction increases (Maslow, 1954). In addition, the school traits – the climate, the openness, the democracy, the involvement in decision making, the shared vision, and the fact that the school is a learning organization – also influence the teachers' attitudes

to be positive. However, not only the teacher's attitudes but also his behavior, and even behavior defined as OCB, is related to the school environment. The school atmosphere and the positive spirit in the school encourage the teachers to adopt OCB, as the social exchange theory maintains. Furthermore, since the teachers wrote and developed their curricula by themselves, basing the curricula on their desire and way, they will be willing to do above and beyond so as to realize their ideas and needs (Lamm, 1970; Moustakas, 1972; The Sudbury Valley School, 1973). Moreover, the curriculum is not just a curriculum that addresses a learning discipline but is a work program for the realization of value, belief, and vision. The belief in the vision (like religious belief) is above rational thinking and it musters the teachers to undertake considerable action (Melitz, 1990). A group of people who are motivated by a vision, as Senge (1995) notes, will have greater motivation to do more so as to realize the vision. These teachers will undertake OCB directed towards different factors in the organization in the process of the writing of the school based curricula and the shared learning the teachers unite and develop feelings of affection, friendship, reciprocal commitment, and trust one another and thus OCB towards the teachers in the school are performed. The work of the teachers that is performed in an environment that accepts their desire, supports them, and involves them will lead them to behave with reciprocity towards the organization and undertake OCB towards the school as an organization. In addition, the teachers will undertake considerable OCB towards their students, since the main goal of the school, for which the school based curriculum was written, is aimed, first and foremost, at the student, to promote and develop him (Oplatka, 2006). Thus, the teachers will do much to promote their students and thus will also promote the school.

Thus, given the aforementioned review of the literature, the following research hypothesis is posited. Differences will be found between teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula and teachers who teach in schools without school based curricula in (A) teacher attitudes (commitment to the organization – affective commitment and value congruence commitment; perceived organizational support, and job satisfaction) and (B) organizational citizenship behavior, when teachers in schools with school based curricula will have higher attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior than will teachers in schools without school based curricula.

3. Summation

The present research study proposes an integrative model for the examination of organizational citizenship behavior in schools – its characteristics and factors. The research assumption is that the organizational citizenship behavior is created, develops, and strengthens when certain conditions related to the individual and to the organization environment exist. The research examines which factors are meaningful and contribute to the development of this behavior. The different models do not contradict one another but constitute an alternative framework of explanations of the performance of OCB by the workers.

The first part of the literature review addressed variables on the level of the individual, including the teacher attitudes and demographic variables that may influence the teacher OCB. The review addressed the commitment to the organization, in its two dimensions, the perceived organizational support, and the job satisfaction as related to the teachers' OCB. In addition, the five demographic variables that may be related to this behavior and to the teacher's attitudes were presented.

The second part of the review addressed school based curriculum, which is a variable on the level of the organization that till now, to the best of my knowledge, has not been examined in the context of teacher organizational citizenship behavior. The review defined autonomous schools in pedagogical terms as learning organizations, in which teachers rely on a shared general and educational philosophy that constitutes a vision and belief they share. The teachers develop the curriculum by themselves; thus, it expresses their desires and beliefs and there is fit between the individual's values and the organization's values. In this situation, the motivation of the teaching staff to act beyond their obligations is greater and hence the expectation of organizational citizenship behavior is greater. In addition, according to the literature, these schools are characterized by a democratic atmosphere in which the teachers participate in the decision making and are partners in the vision and in the learning. A unique experience of cooperation, reciprocal responsibility, support, cohesion, and consideration is created. These traits of the school may influence the teachers' attitude and their OCB. According to the social exchange theory, in these schools the teachers will want to behave with reciprocity towards the school and will undertake OCB towards the teachers, the school, and the students.

The Research Methodology

1. The Research Rationale and Research Model

The review of the research literature presented in the previous chapter shows that empirical information is lacking on the relationship between variables on the level of the individual: teachers' attitudes and teacher demographic variables and their organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, to the best of my knowledge, the impact of the school style (school based curriculum or regular) on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and on their attitudes has not been empirically examined. Thus, the present research intends to examine these issues and the system of the relationships among the variables.

2. The Research Questions / Hypotheses

In light of the review of the literature, the following research questions / hypotheses were posited, on two levels.

The Level of the Individual

1. A positive relationship will be found between the **teachers' attitudes and their organizational citizenship behavior in its different dimensions**.
 - A. A positive relationship will be found between the commitment to the organization in its two dimensions, affective commitment to the organization and value congruence commitment¹, and the organizational citizenship behavior in its three dimensions: to the teachers, to the organization, and to the student.
 - B. A positive relationship will be found between the perceived organizational support and the organizational citizenship behavior towards the teachers, towards the organization, and towards the student.
 - C. A positive relationship will be found between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior towards teachers, towards the organization, and towards the student.

¹ The term value congruence commitment refers to the congruence between the individual's values and the organization's values.

2. Is there a relationship between the **teachers' demographic variables and their organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, towards the students, and towards the teachers?**

Because of the absence of unequivocal findings and the existence of conflicting findings in the research literature on the relationship between the demographic variables (teacher status, years of work experience, education, position, position scope) and the OCB research hypotheses were not formulated regarding the demographic variables. These relationships are examined in the framework of the data processing.

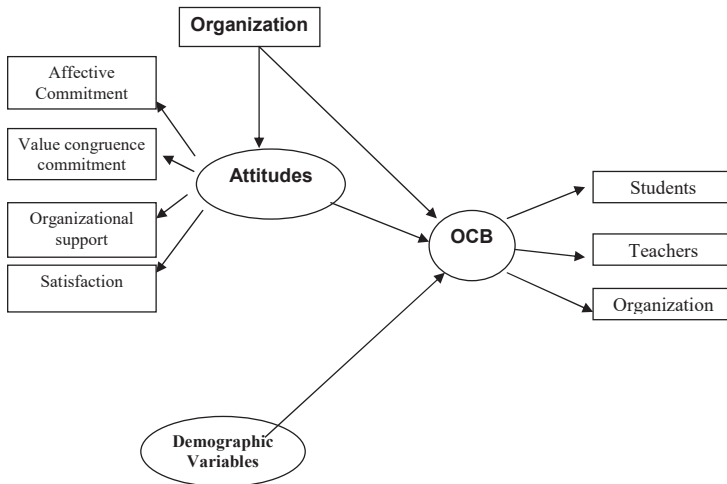
In the framework of the level of the individual, the **relationship between the demographic variables and the teachers' attitudes** are also examined: commitment to the organization, perceived citizenship behavior, and satisfaction.

The Level of the Organization

3. Differences will be found between teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula and teachers who teach in schools without school based curricula in (A) teacher attitudes and (B) organizational citizenship behavior, when teachers in schools with school based curricula will have higher attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior than will teachers in schools without school based curricula.

Following the review of the literature and the formulation of the research hypotheses / questions and to examine the constellation of the relationships simultaneously among all the research variables (independent variables on the level of the individual, independent variables on the level of the group), the present research proposes the following model:

Figure Number 3:
The Integrative Model – Factors Related to Organizational Citizenship
Behavior



According to this model, it can be seen that it is hypothesized that the variables on the level of the individual (teacher attitudes and teacher demographic variables) will influence the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior in its three dimensions. It can further be seen that variables on the level of the organization, namely schools with school based curricula as opposed to schools without school based curricula, will influence the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior in its three dimensions and their attitudes. It should be noted that since research hypotheses were not hypothesized for the relationship between the demographic variables and the organizational citizenship behavior, it is difficult to anticipate at this stage which of the demographic variables will be a part of the model and will be found to influence (positively, negatively, or at all). However, it is reasonable to assume that some of the many demographic variables will be found to have impact and will be introduced into the model.

3. The Research Population and Sample

The research sample included 314 teachers from sixteen state public Jewish elementary schools in the center of Israel. The research population was sampled only from elementary schools because of the possible impact of the type of school (elementary or secondary school) on the organizational citizenship behavior among the teachers. Eight of the sampled schools were defined and recommended by the Ministry of Education as autonomous schools and as having written and implemented school curricula for at least three years. Conversely, the other eight schools are known in the Ministry of Education as 'regular' schools, as schools that do not have school based curricula. In addition, five of the schools are state religious schools: two are state religious schools with school based curricula and three are state religious schools without school based curricula. The schools were characterized as small and medium sized, with up to six hundred students, and as large schools, with more than six hundred students.

The following table presents the sample.

Table Number 1:
Demographic Data of Teachers in the Entire Sample and Comparison
between Teachers in Schools with School Based Curricula and Teachers
in Schools without School Based Curricula Using t tests and χ^2 tests

	Entire Sample	According to School Type		t/ χ^2 (p)
		With School Based Curriculum	Without School Based Curriculum	
Years Teaching Experience	14.79(8.8)	(8.9)16.17	12.89 (7.78)	3.32 **t=
Years Experience in School	9.81(7.73)	10.49 (8.2)	8.91 (6.97)	t=1.79
Teacher Experience in Groups				
0-3	9%	8%	12%	$\chi^2=11.4^*$
4-10	26%	21%	33%	
11-20	41%	42%	40%	
21-42	24%	30%	16%	
Position Scope				
Part time	20%	12%	31%	$\chi^2=14.68^{***}$
Full time	80%	88%	69%	
Gender				
Male	5%	5% (N=8)	5% (N=5)	$\chi^2=.01$
Female	95%	95% (N=148)	95% (N=99)	
Tenure				
Yes	84%	88%	78%	4.54*
No	16%	12%	21%	
Education				
Seminar	22%	18%	27%	$\chi^2=4.80^*$
B.A	63%	65%	62%	
M.A	15%	17%	11%	
Roles				
Senior Management	8%	11%	4%	$\chi^2=4.39^*$
Intermediate Management	24%	30%	17%	$\chi^2=7.06^{**}$
Homeroom teacher	60%	68%	59%	$\chi^2=2.66$
Subject teacher	40%	34%	41%	$\chi^2=1.73$

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

As table number 1 shows, the research subjects in the present research study are for the most part women (95%) with tenure in the educational system (84%) who work full-time in teaching (80%). The overall number of years of teaching experience ranges from 0 to 42 years, with a mean of about 15 years of teaching experience. Most of the

research subjects (80%) have an undergraduate degree (63%) or a graduate degree (15%) and only 22% have only a seminar education.

Examination of the demographic variables between schools with school based curricula and schools without school based curricula indicates that there are significant differences in some of the variables. Teachers in schools with school based curricula are characterized by a slightly higher level of experience than are teachers in schools without school based curricula, a higher percentage of them have tenure in the educational system, and they have higher position scopes. In the area of education, as well, there is a difference between the two types of schools, when teachers in schools with school based curricula have higher level of education (higher percentage of teachers with a graduate degree and lower percentage of teachers without an academic degree). It was further found among the research subjects that there are more teachers with management roles in the schools with school based curricula.

4. The Research Variables

Independent Variables

Variables on the Level of the Individual

A. Teacher Attitudes

1. *Commitment to the organization* – This variable represents the relative strength of the individual's identification with a certain organization and involvement in it (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Porter et al., 1974). For the purpose of the research two dimensions of organizational commitment were used:
 - A. *Affective commitment* – Allen and Meyer (1990, 1996) defined this as emotional attachment to the organization in such a way that the individual is strongly committed to, identifies with, and is involved in the organization and enjoys his membership in the organization. Accordingly, the researchers developed a shortened scale for the measurement of affective commitment – the eight-item affective commitment scale (ACS), which is used in the present research study.

- B. *Value congruence commitment*, commitment that derives from the congruence between the organization's values and the individual values. The researchers O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) defined organizational commitment as a concept with three dimensions that examines the individual's psychological attraction to the organization. The instrument that the researchers developed included twelve questions that address three realms: (1) commitment and involvement that derives from the receipt of reward, (2) identification or involvement based on the desire for contact, and (3) internalization or involvement based on congruence between individual values and organizational values. For the purposes of the present research, only the third dimension, consisting of five questions, is used.
2. *Perceived organizational support* is defined by the researchers as the worker's perceptions of the organizational commitment to him and is based on the constellation of the worker's beliefs on the degree to which the organization appreciates his contribution to it and sees to his well being (Eisenberger, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch, 1997). The workers' perceptions of the organizational commitment are used to judge material rewards (such as salary) and symbolic rewards (such as appreciation and recognition), which are supposed to derive from the increase of worker efforts at work (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The present research study examines perceived organizational support using a shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) of Eisenberger, Cumming, Armeli, and Lynch (1997), which was translated to Hebrew. The goal of the questionnaire is to assess the degree to which the workers perceive the organization as appreciating their contribution and seeing to their well being.
3. *Job satisfaction*. This variable expresses the degree to which the person feels satisfaction with the different aspects of his job (Tsui and Egan, 1992). In regards to the teacher, the research uses the teacher's job satisfaction questionnaire of Gaziel, Borgler, and Nir (2005).

B. Teacher Background Variables

Gender, age, role in the school, education, years of teaching experience, years of work experience in the school, position scope, etc. The data on the teacher's demographic variables were obtained using a demographic information questionnaire for the teacher.

Variables on the Level of the Organization

1. Belonging to School: Autonomous with school based curriculum / regular school.

- A. Autonomous schools, defined as such by the Ministry of Education, with a written school based curriculum that has been implemented for at least three years in each school.
- B. Regular, non-autonomous schools that do not have a school based curriculum.

The schools were selected so that there are no differences in the socioeconomic aspect.

Dependent Variables

1. *Organizational citizenship behavior.* OCB. Organizational citizenship behavior is defined in the present research as all the behaviors that are beyond the formal requirements of the role and are directed towards the individual, the group, or the entire organization, so as to promote the organization's goals (Organ, 1988). This definition is in accord with Bogler and Somech (2005), Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000, 2004) and emphasizes a number of characteristics. The behavior is not included in the role requirements and is performed voluntarily. The goal of the behavior is to promote the organization and this behavior is multidimensional. The dimensions examined on the level of the school are:
 - A. Organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the student.
 - B. Organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the teaching faculty.
 - C. Organizational citizenship behavior directed towards the school as an organization. This behavior is examined using the OCB questionnaire for the school of Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000).

2. The *attitudes variables*: satisfaction, commitment to the organization, and perceived support were examined also as dependent variables in relation to the school type.

Additional Variables

Background variables of the school such as school type: state or state religious, school size, school age, socioeconomic level of the students, number of teachers in the school, number of years that the school has a school based curriculum. The data were collected using the background data questionnaire for the school.

5. The Research Instruments

The research instruments consist of two questionnaires:

A. Questionnaire for Teachers on the following topics

1. Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) questionnaire
2. Commitment to the organization questionnaire
 - A. Affective commitment
 - B. Value congruence commitment
3. Perceived organizational support
4. Satisfaction in teacher's job
5. Demographic information

B. School Background Questionnaire

5.1 Questionnaire for the Teachers

The questionnaire for the teacher is comprised of the following sections:

1. Organizational citizenship behavior questionnaire (appendix number 1)
2. Organizational commitment questionnaire, comprised of two dimensions:
 - A. Affective commitment (appendix number 2)
 - B. Value congruence commitment (appendix number 3)
3. Perceived organizational support questionnaire (appendix number 4)
4. Teacher job satisfaction questionnaire (appendix number 5)
5. Demographic information (appendix number 6).

5.1.1 Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire

The present research study employs the questionnaire developed by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000), which examines the OCB in the school. The questionnaire consists of 23 statements, which address the three dimensions of OCB: towards the students, towards the school, and towards the teachers (see appendix number 1). In the questionnaire there are eight items on organizational citizenship behavior towards the students, for example, “I stay in class during breaks in order to listen to my students” and “I tend to remain at school after the end of the day to help students with difficulties”. There are eight items on organizational citizenship behavior towards the school, for example, “I tend to spend my time in the care for and decoration of the school” and “I initiate and propose innovative ideas to improve the school”. There are seven items of organizational citizenship behavior towards the teachers, for example, “I tend to help new teachers even when this is not part of my role definition” and “I tend to volunteer to the teachers’ committee”. The respondents are asked to note their behavior on a scale of five ranks (1=totally disagree to 5=totally agree). A high score indicates a high level of OCB.

The questionnaire was used by Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000) and Bolger and Somech (2000, 2002).

The reliability of the questionnaire as reported in the literature is as follows:

- OCB towards students – $\alpha=0.80$.
- OCB towards teaching staff – $\alpha=0.77$
- OCB towards school – $\alpha=0.87$

In the present research factor analysis was performed to examine the validity of this instrument. The factor analysis was very similar to what is presented in the research literature when three factors were obtained: organizational citizenship behavior towards teachers, students, and the school. However, slight differences were found relative to the literature in the items that were introduced into each one of the factors. In other words, the factor analysis in this research converged to a result very similar to that of the literature, although not completely identical. Hence, it was decided to keep the three dimensions in the literature and to examine their reliability. The reliability found in the present research was excellence and was even higher than that in the literature.

- OCB towards students – $\alpha=0.802$.
- OCB towards teaching staff – $\alpha=0.84$.
- OCB towards school – $\alpha=0.94$.

Therefore, the measures were built exactly on the basis of the literature.

5.1.2 Commitment to the Organization Questionnaire

For the purposes of the research, questionnaires that examine two dimensions of organizational commitment were examined:

- Affective commitment to the organization
- Value congruence commitment, according to the questionnaire of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986).

5.1.2.1 Affective Commitment Questionnaire

This is based on the questionnaire of Allen and Meyer (1990) (See appendix number 2). The questionnaire includes eight items that examine the workers' affective attachment to the organization, his identification with it, and his involvement in the organization. Originally, every item was on a scale of seven ranks but the present research uses a scale of five ranks (1 = totally disagree, 5 = totally agree) out of considerations of uniformity in the questionnaires.

In addition, in the present research the word 'organization' was changed to the word 'school'. Sample questions include: 'I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this school' and 'I enjoy discussing my school with people outside it'.

A high score expresses a high level of affective commitment. The reliability in the literature is $\alpha=.82$.

The questionnaire was used in researches such as Feather and Rauter (2004) and Bragger, Rodriguez-Srednicki, Kutcher, Indovino, and Rosner (2005).

5.1.2.2 Value Congruence Commitment Questionnaire

According to O'Reilly and Chatman (1986), their questionnaire examines the internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values. (See appendix number 3.)

The original questionnaire consists of twelve questions that represent three dimensions of organizational commitment, but the present research study uses only the five questions of the dimension that examines the commitment that derives from the congruence between the school's values and the individual's values.

In the original questionnaire, there are seven ranks but the present research employs five ranks (1= totally disagree, 5 = totally agree) to create uniformity in the questionnaires. In addition, in the present research the word 'organization' was changed for 'school'. Sample questions include: 'If the values of this school were different, I would not be as attached to this school' and 'Since joining this school, my personal values and those of the school have become more similar'.

A high score expresses a high level of affective commitment. The reliability of the questionnaire in the literature is $\alpha=0.91$.

The questionnaire was also used in the research of Williams and Andersson (1991).

The present research study attempted to examine the validity of the two indices of commitment: affective (eight items) and value congruence (five items). For this purpose, factor analysis was performed with Varimax rotation. The findings of the research converged to two factors that are totally identical to those of the literature, in only three iterations, when 59% of the explained variance was obtained. (The factor of affective commitment explains 31% of the variance while the factor of value congruence commitment explains 29% of the variance.) The load of the items on each one of the factors was about 0.40. Examination of the reliability of each one of the factors using reliability as inner consistency that produces the Cronbach's alpha index indicated very good reliability values of $\alpha=0.86$ for affective commitment and $\alpha=0.89$ for value congruence commitment. On the basis of these analyses, two indices were constructed in the present research, 'affective commitment to the organization' and 'value congruence commitment to the organization'.

5.1.3 Survey of Perceived Organization Support (SPOS)

The variable of perceived organizational support is examined using the shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organization

Support composed by Eisenberger, Cumming, Armeli, and Lynch (1997) and translated into Hebrew. (See appendix number 4.) The purpose of the questionnaire is to evaluate the degree to which workers perceive the organization as appreciating their contributions and seeing to their welfare. The questionnaire includes eight items, when originally they were ranked on a scale of seven options. The present research study employs five answer options (1= totally disagree, 5= totally agree) in order to create uniformity in the questionnaires. In addition, in the present research the word 'organization' was changed for 'school'. The subjects were asked to note the degree to which they agree or do not agree with the statements. Sample questions include: 'My school really cares about my well-being' and 'My school is willing to help me if I need a special favor'.

The reliability of the questionnaire in literature is $\alpha=0.86$.

The present research attempts to also examine the validity of this variable of perceived organizational support using factor analysis with Varimax rotation. In this analysis, all eight items of the questionnaire converged into only one factor, as we might expect in light of the research literature in the field, while explaining 60.2% of the explained variance. The load of all the items on the factor was above 0.67. Examination of the reliability of the factor using reliability as inner consistency produced a very high Cronbach's alpha, $\alpha=0.90$. On the basis of these analyses, the index of 'perceived organizational support' was constructed in the present research.

5.1.4 Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

The questionnaire was taken from the research report of Gaziel, Borgler, and Nir (2005). The instrument includes eight items that examine the teacher's job satisfaction. The respondents were asked to note the degree to which they are satisfied with each statement. Sample questions include "The social relations with the people I work with" and "The respect I receive from the people with whom I work".

In the original questionnaire, the scale was of four ranks, but the present questionnaire uses a scale of five ranks (1=very not satisfied to 5=very satisfied) because of the need to create uniformity in the questionnaires.

The eight items of the satisfaction questionnaire were examined in the present research using factor analysis with Varimax rotation. In this analysis all eight items converged into only one factor, while explaining 61% of the explained variance. The load of all the items on the factor was above 0.69. Examination of the reliability of the factor using reliability as internal consistency produced a very high Cronbach's alpha, $\alpha=0.90$. On the basis of these analyses, one index of 'satisfaction' was constructed in the present research.

5.1.5 Demographic Information Questionnaire

The **demographic information questionnaire** (see appendix number 6) includes eight questions that were taken from different questionnaires according to the needs of the present research. It addresses demographic information such as years of teaching experience, years of work experience in the school, education, etc.

5.2 Background Information on the School Questionnaire

The questionnaire includes items that provide information on the background variables of the school (see appendix number 7): the type of school (regular or with school based curriculum, state or state religious), the size of the school, the age of the school, the socioeconomic level of the students, the number of teachers in the school, the number of years that the school has a school based curriculum.

6. The Research Process

In the first stage, the material was presented to the Head Scientist of the Ministry of Education in order to obtain permission to distribute the questionnaires. Then, conversations were held with supervisors from the Tel Aviv and Central District and with a number of instructors in the field of school-based curricula who accompany different schools in the planning and writing of the school based curricula. In these meetings the research goals, the importance, and the contribution in the theoretical and applied fields to the school were explained. With the help of the instructors and supervisors, a list of the appropriate schools for the present research was obtained: schools defined as autonomous schools with school based curricula that have been written and implemented for at least three years and schools without school based curricula. After the names of the schools appropriate for the research were obtained, the

different schools were approached and a meeting with the principals was held.

The goals of the meeting:

- To explain about the research goals and importance and to obtain the support in the data collection process.
- To provide directives related to the research process with emphasis placed on the preservation of confidentiality.
- To collect data on the school according to the school background questionnaire (appendix number 7).
- To coordinate a time for the distribution of the questionnaires among the teachers, a time suitable for the school principals – preferably during a teachers meeting when most of the staff is in the school.

Thus, at a time convenient to the school principal the researcher went to the school to distribute the questionnaires. In all the cases, according to the researcher's request, this was during a teacher's meeting or in-service training course. In the meeting with the school staff they were told that their participation is voluntary and the research goals were described in general terms. The topic of the preservation of confidentiality of the collected data was emphasized. After the conversation, the different questionnaires were distributed among the teachers. The researcher waited until the questionnaires were filled out, collected them immediately afterwards, and thus the completion rate of the questionnaires was close to 100%.

The Research Findings

This chapter presents the research findings according to the research hypotheses and questions, as presented in the previous chapter. First, variables on the level of the individual related to the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior, including attitudes and demographic variables, are presented. Then the data are presented in regards to the variables on the level of the organization / the level of the school are presented, which differentiate between schools with school based curricula and regular schools. Last, the integrative model that integrates all the research variables posited in the hypotheses is presented.

1. Findings on the Level of the Individual

Examination of Research Hypothesis Number 1

A positive relationship will be found between the teachers' attitudes and their organizational citizenship behavior in its different dimensions.

To examine the first research hypothesis on the relationships between the variables of teachers' attitudes, which include the level of commitment to the organization in its two dimensions, perceived organizational support, and satisfaction, and the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior, as they report it, these relationships were examined using first order Pearson correlations. However, before the first research hypothesis on these relationships was examined the means of the variables of attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior and the differences between them were examined, as well as the inner relationships among the variables of attitudes and among the indices of organizational citizenship behavior.

The means and standard deviations of the variables of attitudes and OCB of the entire sample are presented in table number 2. The inner relationships among the indices of the attitudes were examined using Pearson correlations and are presented in table number 3. The inner relationships among the indices of OCB are presented in table number 4. The research hypotheses on the relationships between the variables of attitudes and the indices of OCB are presented in table number 5. It should be noted that since the group of teachers comes from two types of schools, schools with school based curricula and schools without school based curricula, the relationships between the teachers' attitudes and

their OCB were also examined in each type of school separately. These relationships are also presented in table number 5.

Table Number 2:
Means and Standard Deviations of Teacher Attitudes and Teacher
Organizational Citizenship Behavior in the Entire Sample

Index	N	MIN	MAX	M	SD
Affective Commitment	313	1.75	5.00	3.87	.76
Value Congruence Commitment	311	1.30	5.00	3.53	.90
Perceived Organizational Support	313	1.50	5.00	3.86	.70
Job Satisfaction	310	2.25	5.00	4.18	.63
OCB Teachers	314	1.00	5.00	4.01	.72
OCB Students	314	1.38	5.00	2.99	.72
OCB Organization	314	1.25	5.00	3.53	.99

As the table shows, the range of scores of the teacher attitudes and teacher OCB is very broad (with the exception of the variable of satisfaction, in which the range is narrower). The means of the variables indicate high attitudes (attitudes that range from 3.53 to 4.18) and moderate OCB (2.99 towards the students) and high OCB (3.53 towards the organization).

In the continuation of the examination of the means, the differences between the two dimensions of commitment (affective commitment and value congruence commitment) and the three dimensions of OCB were examined using t tests for dependent samples. The findings of the t-test show that there is a significant difference between the two dimensions of commitment ($t(310df)=8.97$, $p<.001$) when the means indicate that the affective commitment is significantly higher than the value congruence commitment (3.87 and 3.53, respectively). In regards to the three variables of OCB, it was found that there are significant differences between the three dimensions, in the following order: OCB towards teachers is the highest ($M=4.01$) and is different significantly from OCB towards the organization ($t(313)=12.79$, $p<.001$) and OCB towards the students ($t(313)=28.86$, $p<.001$). The second dimension is OCB towards the organization

(M=3.53), which is significantly different from OCB towards students, which was found to be the lowest (M=2.99) ($t(313)=13.90$, $p<.001$).

As aforementioned, before the research hypothesis on the relationships between teacher attitudes and teacher organizational citizenship behavior was examined, the inner relationships among the variables of the attitudes (table number 3) and among the variables of organizational citizenship behavior (table number 4) were examined using Pearson correlations.

Table Number 3:
Pearson Correlations for the Examination of the Inner Relationships
among the Four Attitudes Indices

	Affective Commitment	Value Congruence Commitment	Perceived Organizational Support	Satisfaction
Affective Commitment	-			
Value Congruence Commitment	.67***	-		
Perceived Organizational Support	.71***	.67***	-	
Satisfaction	.65***	.62***	.67***	-

*** $p<.001$

As can be seen in table number 3, strong positive significant relationships were found between the four variables of attitudes. These relationships indicate that in general teachers who expressed high affective commitment also expressed high value congruence commitment, high perceived organizational support, and high satisfaction. Teachers who expressed lower attitudes tended to do so in all four indices.

Table Number 4:
Pearson Correlations for the Examination of the Inner Relationships
among the Three OCB Indices

	OCB Teachers	OCB Students	OCB Organization
OCB Teachers	-		
OCB Students	.63***	-	
OCB Organization	.75***	.72***	-

***p<.001

As can be seen in table number 4, examination of the relationships among the indices of the OCB indicates strong significant positive relationships among the indices themselves. According to these relationships, a teacher who reported high OCB did this in all three of the dimension together. Alternatively, a teacher who reported low OCB tended to do so in all three indices.

Table Number 5:
Pearson Correlations between Teacher Attitudes and Teacher
Organizational Citizenship Behavior

	All Teachers			Schools with School Based Curricula			Schools without School Based Curricula		
	OCB Indices			OCB Indices			OCB Indices		
	Teachers	Student	Organization	Teachers	Student	Organization	Teachers	Student	Organization
Affective commitment	.62**	.51**	.66**	.30**	.15*	.39**	.54**	.45**	.60**
Value congruence commitment	.68**	.65**	.68**	.33**	.35**	.44**	.63**	.61**	.59**
Organizational support	.50**	.49**	.52**	.24**	.27**	.29**	.50**	.48**	.53**
Satisfaction	.54**	.47**	.59**	.23*	.22*	.35**	.47**	.39**	.53**
p<.01 * p<.001 **									

As can be seen in table number 5, there are strong significant positive relationships between teacher attitudes and OCB of teachers among all the teachers in the research. These significant relationships, which range from $r=.47$ (between satisfaction and OCB students) and $r=.68$ (between value congruence commitment and OCB teachers and organization), indicate that teachers who have high attitudes, namely a high level of commitment to the organization, who have high perceived organizational support, and who have a high level of satisfaction also expressed a high organizational citizenship behavior towards the students, the teachers, and the organization. Teachers with low attitudes also have low organizational citizenship behavior. It should be noted that although all the correlations were strong and significant, the relationships between the teachers' attitudes and the OCB student is lower than the relationships between attitudes and the OCB teachers and organization. Thus, for instance while the correlations between the

teachers' affective commitment and the OCB teachers and organization are $r=.66$ and $r=.62$, the correlation between the teachers' attitudes and the OCB students is $r=.51$.

As aforementioned, the relationships between the teachers' attitudes and their OCB were also examined separately for each type of school: schools with school based curricula and schools without school based curricula. The examination of these relationships, also in table number 5, indicates that while these relationships are significant and positive in both schools, they are stronger among teachers who belong to the school without school based curricula – and are consistently so in all the correlations. While the strength of the correlations in the school with a school based curriculum ranges from $r=.15$ to $r=.44$, the correlations in the school without a school based curriculum range from $r=.39$ to $r=.61$.

To sum up the examination of the first research hypothesis, it can be seen that, as hypothesized, there are strong significant positive relationships between the teacher attitudes and teacher organizational citizenship behavior. These relationships were found to be stronger with the OCB indices that are affiliated with the teachers and the organization than with those of the students. It was further found that the strength of the relationship is higher between the teacher attitudes and the OCB among the teachers who teach in the schools without school based curricula than among teachers who teach in the schools with school based curricula.

Examination of Research Question Number 2

Is there a relationship between the teachers' demographic variables and their organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization, towards the students, and towards the teachers?

As aforementioned, because of the absence of unequivocal findings and even the existence of conflicting findings in regards to the relationship between the demographic variables of the individual teacher and the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior, research hypotheses were not formulated regarding the demographic variables and these relationships are examined in the present research. It should further be noted that in the framework of the hypotheses / questions on the level of the individual, the *relationships between the teacher attitudes* (commitment to the organization, perceived organizational

support, and satisfaction) *and the demographic variables* were examined. The examination of these relationships is important since the assumption is that these variables, all on the level of the individual, may be related to the OCB but it is possible that there are reciprocal relations among them.

The personal demographic variables examined in the present research study were education, teaching experience, position scope, and role in the school. Two variables on the level of the individual were not examined. One variable was the gender, since the number of men in the sample was most low, as seen in the chapter on the sample. The second variable that was not examined is the variable of tenure in the educational system (with and without tenure) since the percentage of teachers without tenure was most low and since there is a strong relationship between the variable of experience and the variable of tenure.

To examine the relationships between the different demographic variables and the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior and the indices of attitudes, two types of statistical tests were conducted, according to the measurement scale of the demographic variables. Continuous variables (such as years of experience in teaching) were examined using Pearson correlations while name and ordinal variables were examined using MANOVA tests. However, since the research included teachers of two different types of organizations, namely schools with school based curricula and schools without school based curricula, this variable of school type was also taken into consideration during the statistical processing so that the correlations were examined for each of the groups separately and in the variance analyses interactions between the demographic variable and the school type were performed. The following paragraphs detail the relationships between each one of the demographic variables and the teachers' attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior.

Teacher Education

As noted in the chapter of the sample, the variable of the teacher's education included three possible values: teachers without a degree who are graduates of a teacher's seminar, teachers with an undergraduate degree, and teachers with a graduate degree. Most of the teachers (about

two-thirds) have an undergraduate degree and the rest are divided between a seminar education and a graduate degree.

The relationship between the teacher's education and the variables of behavior and attitudes (separately) was examined using multivariate variance analyses, which examined the differences between the three groups of education in the behavior and attitudes, in the interaction with the school type. The analysis was, therefore, 2X3 and included supervision on the variable of work experience (MANCOVA).

It should be noted that although the variance analyses were conducted separately on the variables of the attitudes and the variables of the OCB, the findings are presented in joint tables for convenience. Table number 6 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values for the examination of the differences between the three levels of education. Table number 7 presents the means and standard deviations of the three indices of OCB according to the levels of education and schools.

Table Number 6:
Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and F Values of the Examination of
the Differences between the Three Levels of Education of Teachers in
the Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes (N=272)

	Teacher Education			F(P)
	Seminar	B.A	M.A	
OCB Teachers	3.84 (.73)	4.14 (.64)	4.24 (.52)	6.3**
OCB Students	2.88 (.79)	3.08 (.66)	3.15 (.66)	2.05
OCB Organization	3.23 (1.02)	3.67 (.95)	3.78 (.84)	6.79**
Affective Commitment	3.84 (.87)	3.94 (.72)	3.94 (.69)	.64
Value Congruence Commitment	3.52 (.98)	3.60 (.84)	3.75 (.82)	.36
Perceived Organizational Support	3.91 (.74)	3.90 (.69)	3.82 (.73)	1.28
Job Satisfaction	4.08 (.60)	4.23 (.62)	4.34 (.60)	1.40

* P<.05 ** P<.01 ** P<.001

Table Number 7:
Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and F Values of the Examination of
the Interaction between Education and School Type in OCB and
Attitudes

	Schools with School Based Curricula			Schools without School Based Curricula			F(P)
	Seminar	B.A	M.A	Seminar	B.A	M.A	
OCB Teachers	4.35	4.47	4.49	3.30	3.56	3.66	.38
	.24	.36	.32	.70	.61	.44	
OCB Students	3.35	3.33	3.42	2.37	2.64	2.52	1.28
	.58	.53	.53	.67	.65	.52	
OCB Organization	3.93	4.12	4.13	2.49	2.90	2.97	.26
	.47	.63	.61	.92	.92	.75	
Affective Commitment	4.30	4.2	4.06	3.34	3.5	3.67	1.33
	.52	.57	.79	.92	.75	.26	
Value Congruence Commitment	4.12	3.89	4.00	2.86	3.11	3.17	1.76
	.61	.72	.76	.88	.82	.65	
Perceived Organizational Support	4.32	4.04	4.00	3.48	3.67	3.49	2.13
	.49	.71	.81	.72	.59	.35	
Job Satisfaction	4.36	4.39	4.54	3.78	3.94	3.88	.62
	.52	.56	.49	.55	.62	.60	

* P<.05 * * P<.01 *** P<.001

The findings of the variance analyses presented in the previous two tables indicate that in all that pertains to the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers there are significant differences between the teachers with different levels of education in two of the three dimensions: organizational citizenship behavior – teachers ($F(2,271)=6.30$, $p<.01$) and organizational citizenship behavior – organization ($F(2,271)=6.79$, $p<.01$). Examination of the means and contrasts among the three levels of education shows that the source of the differences derives from the fact that teachers with undergraduate and graduate degrees reported higher organizational citizenship behavior than did the teachers who are seminar graduates. In other words, it can

be seen that as the level of education rises, the teachers report a higher level of OCB towards the teachers and towards the organization. However, it should be noted that in the OCB teachers a significant difference was not found between the teachers with undergraduate degrees and the teachers with graduate degrees when the two groups with the academic degrees are higher than are the seminar teachers.

This pattern of differences between the different levels of education was identical between the two types of schools, as can be seen in the means presented in table number 7 and in the non-significant interaction between education and school type.

In regards to the relationship between education and teacher attitudes, a significant difference was not found between the different levels of education and the teachers' attitudes (table number 7). In addition, significant interactions were not found between the levels of education and the school types. Thus, it can be seen that there is no relationship between the education of the teachers and their attitudes.

Years of Teaching Experience

As presented in the chapter of the sample, the years of teaching experience range from 0 years to 42 years, with a mean of about 15 years of teaching experience (standard deviation 9 years).

To examine the relationships between the years of teaching experience and the organizational citizenship behavior and the teachers' attitudes, the correlations between the variable of experience and the OCB and attitudes were examined using first order Pearson correlations. These correlations were calculated for the entire sample (N=298) and for each school type separately, namely for the schools with school based curricula (N=172) and for the schools without school based curricula (N=126). The Pearson correlations and their significance are presented in table number 8.

Table Number 8:
Correlations between the Years of Teaching Experience and the
Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Teacher Attitudes

	Entire Sample (N=298)	Schools with School Based Curricula (N= 172)	Schools without School Based Curricula (N=126)
OCB Teachers	.25***	.09	.24**
OCB Students	.24***	.21**	.18
OCB Organization	.29***	.22**	.26**
Affective Commitment	.29***	.22**	.26**
Value Congruence Commitment	.28***	.21**	.22**
Perceived Organizational Support	.31***	.26**	.26**
Job Satisfaction	.18**	.12	.11

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001

Examination of the correlations in the entire sample in table number 8 indicates that in almost all the variables there are low to moderate significant relationships with teaching experience ($r=.18 - r=.31$). In other words, as the teacher's number of years of teaching experience is higher, his organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes are higher, too. The variable for which the weakest relationship was found is the variable of satisfaction ($r=.18$).

Examination of the pattern of the relationships in each one of the schools separately indicates that the pattern of relationships is similar in general. In each one of the schools separately it was found that the teacher's number of years of teaching experience is positively significantly related, weakly to moderately, with most of the variables of the OCB and attitudes (with the exception of the relationship between years of experience and satisfaction, which was not found to be significant in both schools). The single difference in the pattern of the relationships in both schools was found in the relationship between the years of teaching experience and organizational citizenship behavior towards the teachers, which was not significant in the schools with school based curricula ($r=.09$, $p>.05$) but was significant in the schools without school based curricula ($r=.24$, $p<.01$).

It can be summed up that the years of teaching experience are weakly to moderately related to organizational citizenship behavior, when the pattern of the relationships is similar in general in both schools.

Since the years of teaching experience is a continuous variable, an attempt was made to examine whether there are ‘cut-off points’ in terms of the number of years in which there is a significant difference in terms of the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes of the teachers. Hence, the number of years of experience was divided into four categories: 0-3 years of experience (the years of experience before the teacher receives tenure from the Ministry of Education), 4-10 years, 11-20 years, and 21-42. One-way analyses of variance with contrasts of post-hoc were performed to examine whether there is a difference between these four groups. The variance analyses indicate that the cut-off points in most of the cases (organizational citizenship behavior and teachers’ attitudes) is that of ten years: in other words, teachers with teaching experience of ten and more years report higher levels of organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes than do the teachers with less than ten years teaching experience.

Position Scope

The scope of the teacher’s position is divided into two categories – full-time teacher position and part-time teacher position. Most of the teachers in the sample have full-time positions (80%) and the rest have part-time positions (20%).

The relationship between the scope of the teacher’s position (full-time or part-time) and the variables of OCB and the variables of attitudes was examined using multivariate variance analysis, which examined the differences between the two groups and the interaction with the school type. The analysis performed was thus 2X2, which was conducted with the supervision of the variable of the teacher type (subject teacher or homeroom teacher), since subject teachers generally have a smaller position scope than do homeroom teachers. The means, standard deviations, and F values of the differences between the groups are presented in table number 9. The interaction between the position scope and school type is presented in table number 10.

Table Number 9:
Means and Standard Deviations (SD) for the Examination of the
Difference between Full-Time Position and Part-Time Position in
Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes of Teachers (N=276)

	Teacher Position		F(P)
	Full-Time Position (N=220)	Part-Time Position (N=56)	
OCB Teachers	4.21 (.59)	3.50 (.72)	162.23***
OCB Students	3.13 (.66)	2.70 (.71)	78.16***
OCB Organization	3.77 (.85)	2.98 (1.04)	115.35***
Affective Commitment	4.03 (.67)	3.46 (.85)	48.17***
Value Congruence Commitment	3.70 (.79)	3.08 (.99)	68.97***
Perceived Organizational Support	3.96 (.69)	3.55 (.66)	12.98***
Job Satisfaction	4.26 (.60)	3.97 (.61)	28.58***

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001

Table Number 10:
Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and F Values for the Examination of
the Interaction between Position Scope and School Type in OCB and
Attitudes

	Schools with School Based Curricula		Schools without School Based Curricula		F(P)
	Full Time	Part Time	Full Time	Part Time	
OCB Teachers	4.49 (.34)	4.21 (.34)	3.71 (.61)	3.11 (.55)	3.77*
OCB Students	3.35 (.55)	3.34 (.36)	2.73 (.64)	2.34 (.60)	3.59*
OCB Organization	4.12 (.63)	3.92 (.43)	3.14 (.82)	2.45 (.90)	3.21
Affective Commitment	4.22 (.57)	4.04 (.73)	3.67 (.69)	3.14 (.74)	1.85
Value Congruence Commitment	3.95 (.67)	3.89 (.79)	3.26 (.79)	2.63 (.79)	4.81*
Perceived Organizational Support	4.12 (.66)	3.76 (.81)	3.67 (.65)	3.44 (.54)	.80
Job Satisfaction	4.42 (.54)	4.34 (.58)	3.99 (.62)	3.77 (.54)	.15

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001

As table number 9 shows, significant differences were found between the teachers with a full-time position and the teachers with a part-time position in all the research variables, both in the organizational citizenship behavior and in the attitudes. Examination of the means shows that teachers with full-time positions are significantly higher than are teachers with part-time position in organizational citizenship behavior in its three dimensions and in all the variables of attitudes. However, it should be noted that the most significant difference between teachers with different position scopes is expressed in organizational citizenship behavior and less in attitudes, as can be seen in the stronger F values in organizational citizenship behavior as opposed to attitudes. Of the variables of the OCB, the stronger variable in which a difference was found between the two groups of teachers is in the organizational citizenship behavior towards teachers ($F=162.23$, $p<.001$) while the weakest is towards the students ($F=78.16$, $p<.001$).

However, in the examination of the interaction between the school type and the position scope significant interactions were found in

the three variables: OCB teachers, OCB students, and value congruence commitment. In other words, the pattern of the gaps between teachers with a full-time position and a part-time position is different in these indices in each one of the schools. The examination of the means and additional t tests performed indicate that in the schools with school based curricula the gap between teachers with full-time positions and teachers with part-time positions is smaller and is even totally reduced in these variables than in the schools without school based curricula. OCB teachers: in the schools with school based curricula the gap between the full-time teachers and the part-time teachers is reduced ($t(160df)=3.49$, $p<.01$) as opposed to in the schools without school based curricula ($t(114df)=513$, $p<.001$). OCB students: in the schools with school based curricula the gap between full-time teachers and part-time teachers disappears ($t(160df)=0.99$, $P>.05$) as opposed to schools without school based curricula where full-time teachers report higher citizenship behavior towards the students ($f(114df)=3.07$, $p<.01$). Value congruence commitment: in schools with school based curricula the gap between the full-time teachers and the part-time teachers has vanished ($t(160df)=0.30$, $P>.05$) as opposed to schools without school based curricula where full-time teachers report a higher commitment to the organization that derives from values ($t(113df)=3.09$, $p<.01$).

In other words, the gaps between full-time teachers and part-time teachers have lessened and even disappeared among schools with school based curricula when teachers with a lower position scope also report a high level of OCB towards teachers and students and a high level of commitment to the organization's values.

Homeroom Teachers versus Subject Teachers

To examine whether there is a difference in the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes between homeroom teachers and subject teachers, multivariate variance analyses were conducted to examine the differences between these two groups in the OCB and attitudes, in the interaction with the two school types. The analysis is therefore 2X2 with supervision on the position scope, since subject teachers in many cases have positions of less scope than do homeroom teachers.

It should be noted that the number of subjects included in these analyses is lower since cases in which teachers work both as subject

teachers and as a homeroom teachers were removed from the sample as well as cases in which teachers serve in different management positions in the school. The number of teachers in this analysis included 98 homeroom teachers and 76 subject teachers, for a total of 165 teachers.

Table number 11 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values of the entire sample. Table number 12 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values for the interactions.

Table Number 11:
Means and Standard Deviations for the Examination of the Differences
between the Homeroom Teachers and the Subject Teachers in
Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes

	Homeroom Teachers vs. Subject Teachers		F(P)
	Homeroom Teachers	Subject Teachers	
OCB Teachers	4.11 (.60)	3.66 (.77)	6.89*
OCB Students	3.03 (.66)	2.74 (.71)	1.99
OCB Organization	3.47 (.83)	3.03 (1.01)	3.19*
Affective Commitment	3.83 (.67)	3.46 (.80)	4.74*
Value Congruence Commitment	3.53 (.75)	3.06 (.96)	5.33*
Perceived Organizational Support	3.77 (.67)	3.52 (.73)	1.37
Job Satisfaction	4.14 (.60)	3.93 (.64)	2.03

P<.05 * P<.01** P<.001***

Table Number 12:
Interaction between Teacher Position and School Type in Organizational
Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes

	Schools with School Based Curricula		Schools without School Based Curricula		F(P)
	Homeroom Teachers	Subject Teachers	Homeroom Teachers	Subject Teachers	
OCB Teachers	4.44 (.35)	4.29 (.36)	3.68 (.59)	3.18 (.65)	2.44
OCB Students	3.27 (.53)	3.35 (.38)	2.73 (.69)	2.27 (53)	7.03**
OCB Organization	3.89 (.62)	3.82 (.51)	2.93 (.74)	2.44 (.89)	2.27
Affective Commitment	4.05 (.58)	3.82 (.73)	3.55 (.69)	3.18 (.75)	.22
Value Congruence Commitment	3.84 (.66)	3.59 (.80)	3.13 (.68)	2.65 (.88)	.56
Perceived Organizational Support	3.92 (.69)	3.69 (.75)	3.58 (.60)	3.39 (.69)	.18
Job Satisfaction	4.28 (.58)	4.13 (.61)	3.96 (.58)	3.78 (.63)	.005

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001

As table number 11 shows, significant differences were found between the homeroom teachers and subject teachers in two of the variables of organizational citizenship behavior, towards the teachers and towards the students, when homeroom teachers report higher OCB than do subject teachers.

Significant differences were also found in two of the variables of attitudes, affective commitment and value congruence commitment, when in these variables as well it was found that the homeroom teachers have significantly higher attitudes than do the subject teachers. In the other variables (organizational citizenship behavior towards the students, perceived organizational support, and job satisfaction) differences were not found between the homeroom teachers and the subject teachers.

This pattern of differences between the homeroom teachers and the subject teachers was found to be identical in both schools, as can be seen in the interactions that were not significant (table number 12). The only variable in which a significant interaction was found is the organizational citizenship behavior towards students ($F=7.03$, $p<.01$). Examination of the means and the performance of additional t-tests indicate that while in the schools without school based curricula there is a significant difference between homeroom teachers and subject teachers ($t(99df)=2.90$, $p<.01$) this difference did not exist among teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula ($t(90df)=.71$, $p>.05$), when the organizational citizenship behavior of subject teachers and homeroom teachers is equal towards students in these schools.

Management Roles

To examine whether there is a differences in the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes between teachers who also hold management roles as opposed to teachers who do not have management roles multivariate variance analyses were conducted to examine the differences between the two groups in their organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes, in interaction with the two types of schools. The performed analysis was thus 2×2 with supervision of the position scope, years of teaching experience, and level of education, since teachers who have management roles generally are teachers with a higher number of years of teaching experience, a higher level of education, and a greater position scope.

The number of teachers in this analysis included 73 teachers with different management roles in the school (such as grade coordinators, subject coordinators, etc.) and 177 teachers who do not have management roles of any type. Table number 13 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values of the entire sample. Table number 14 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values for the interactions.

Table Number 13:
Means and Standard Deviations for the Examination of the Differences
between Teachers with Management Roles and Teachers without
Management Roles in Organizational Citizenship Behavior and
Attitudes

	Management Roles		F(P)
	With Management Role	Without Management Role	
OCB Teachers	4.38 (.54)	4.01 (.65)	1.67
OCB Students	3.30 (.66)	2.98 (.67)	2.24
OCB Organization	4.25 (.71)	3.39 (.90)	28.87***
Affective Commitment	4.33 (.54)	3.78 (.76)	11.74**
Value Congruence Commitment	4.00 (.69)	3.49 (.64)	5.37*
Perceived Organizational Support	4.26 (.52)	3.75 (.71)	11.61**
Job Satisfaction	4.52 (.50)	4.10 (.61)	4.72*

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001

Table Number 14:
Interaction between Management Role and School Type in
Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes

	Schools with School Based Curricula		Schools without School Based Curricula		F(P)
	Teacher with Management Role	Teacher without Management Role	Teacher with Management Role	Teacher without Management Role	
OCB Teachers	4.58 (.29)	4.38 (.34)	3.69 (.63)	3.52 (.64)	.07
OCB Students	3.44 (.58)	3.30 (.51)	2.84 (.70)	2.56 (.63)	.49
OCB Organization	4.46 (.49)	3.88 (.57)	3.54 (.84)	2.73 (.84)	1.11
Affective Commitment	4.48 (.44)	4.04 (.62)	3.83 (.52)	3.43 (.78)	.01
Value Congruence Commitment	4.18 (.58)	3.81 (.71)	3.42 (73.4)	3.07 (.81)	.00
Perceived Organizational Support	4.38 (.51)	3.90 (.72)	3.88 (.38)	3.55 (.65)	.30
Job Satisfaction	4.69 (.3.19)	4.24 (.58)	3.95 (.58)	3.92 (.60)	6.09*

* P<.05 ** P<.01 *** P<.001

As can be seen in table number 13, significant differences were found between teachers with management roles and teachers without management roles in one variable of the organizational citizenship behavior, organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization ($F=28.87$, $p<.001$), when teachers with management roles report a higher level of organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization than do teachers who do not hold management roles. Examination of the variables of attitudes indicates that significant differences were found between the two groups of teachers in all four of the variables of attitudes, when in all cases teachers with management roles report higher attitudes than do teachers who not have management roles.

Examination of the interactions between the management role and the school type (school based curricula vs. no school based curricula) found only one significant interaction in the variable of satisfaction. Examination of the means and performance of t tests indicate that in

schools without school based curricula there is no difference in the degree of satisfaction between teachers who have management roles and teachers who do not have management roles ($t(133df)=1.64$, $p>.05$). This difference does exist in schools with school based curricula ($t(173df)=4.80$, $p<.001$). In all the other variables, the pattern of the differences between teachers with management roles and teachers without management roles is retained in both types of schools.

In other words, it is possible to summarize and say that in general teachers who hold different management roles in addition to their positions as teachers report a higher level of organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization and more positive attitudes than do teachers who do not have management roles (with the exception of job satisfaction, when this difference was found only in schools with school based curricula). There is no difference between teachers with management roles and teachers without management roles in their organizational citizenship behavior towards students in the two types of schools: schools with school based curricula and regular schools.

2. Findings on the Level of the Organization

Examination of Research Hypothesis Number 3

Differences will be found between teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula and teachers who teach in schools without school based curricula in (A) teacher attitudes and (B) organizational citizenship behavior, when teachers in schools with school based curricula will have higher attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior than will teachers in schools without school based curricula.

To examine the third research hypothesis, which hypothesizes that the attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior of teachers in schools with school based curricula will be significantly higher than those of teachers in schools without school based curricula, the differences between the teachers in both types of organizations were examined using multivariate variance analysis with the supervision of some of the demographic variables in which a difference was found between the two types of organization (teacher position scope, teacher experience, as presented in table number 1 in the chapter of the sample). Therefore, the analysis is MANCOVA analysis. The analysis was conducted separately on teacher attitudes and teacher

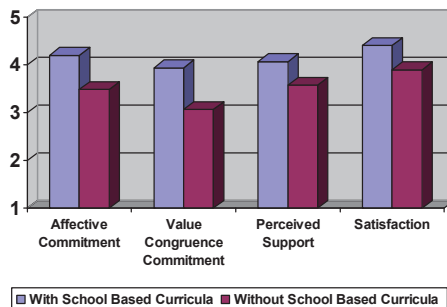
organizational citizenship behavior. Table number 15 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values for the examination of the differences between the two types of organizations in teacher attitudes. Table number 16 presents the means, standard deviations, and F values for the examination of the differences between the two types of organizations organizational citizenship behavior.

Table Number 15:
Means, Standard Deviations, and F Values for the Examination of the
Differences in Teacher Attitudes in Schools with School Based
Curricula and Schools without School Based Curricula

	Schools with School Based Curricula (N=158)		Schools without School Based Curricula (N=107)		F(p)
	M	SD	M	SD	
Affective Commitment	4.20	.60	3.49	.75	49.75***
Value Congruence Commitment	3.94	.69	3.07	.83	63.3***
Perceived Organizational Support	4.07	.69	3.58	.63	21.27***
Job Satisfaction	4.40	.55	3.90	.59	37.36***

***p<.001

Figure Number 4:
Means for the Examination of the Differences in the Teacher Attitudes
between Schools with School Based Curricula and Schools without
School Based Curricula



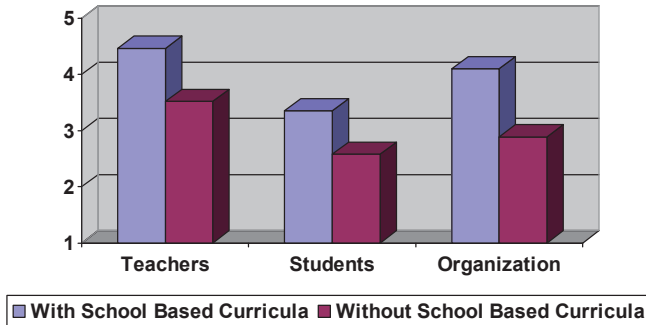
As table number 15 and figure number 4 show, there are significant differences between the attitudes of teachers in schools with school based curricula as opposed to those of teachers in schools without school based curricula. The attitudes of teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula are higher significantly than those of teachers who teach in schools without school based curricula in all four indices of attitudes. Examination of the means indicates that while the attitudes of teachers in schools without school based curricula are moderate to high (ranging from 3.07 to 3.90), the attitudes of the teachers in schools with school based curricula are higher than the attitudes of the teachers in schools with school based curricula, which are high to very high (ranging from 3.94 to 4.40). Table number 15 further shows that the strongest difference between the teachers in both types of organizations is in the variable of commitment ($F=63.3$ in value congruence commitment and $F=49.75$ in affective commitment). The smallest difference, although also significant, was found in the index of perceived organizational support ($F=21.27$). The similarity that exists between the teachers in both types of schools is that the highest expressed attitude is satisfaction and the lowest attitude is value congruence commitment.

Table Number 16:
Means, Standard Deviations, and F Values for the Examination of the
Differences in Teacher Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Schools
with School Based Curricula and Schools without School Based
Curricula

	Schools with School Based Curricula N=158		Schools without School Based Curricula (N=107)		F(p)
	M	SD	M	SD	
OCB Teachers	4.46	.34	3.52	.66	193.93***
OCB Students	3.35	.54	2.58	.63	90.13***
OCB Organization	4.10	.61	2.89	.91	129.89***

*** $p < .001$

Figure Number 5:
Means for the Examination of the Differences in the Organizational
Citizenship Behavior of Teachers between Schools with School Based
Curricula and Schools without School Based Curricula



As can be seen in table number 16 and figure number 5, significant differences between the teachers in both types of schools were also found in the indices of OCB when in all three indices – teachers, students, and organization – the teachers in schools with school based curricula were found to have higher organizational citizenship behavior than the teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula. However, it should be noted that the strongest difference between the two groups was found in organizational citizenship behavior towards teachers ($F=193.93$), then towards the organization ($F=129.89$), and last towards students ($F=90.13$). Examination of the means indicates that the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers in schools without school based curricula are moderate to very high while the highest level of OCB in the schools with school based curricula is towards the teachers, which is the lowest level of OCB among teachers in schools without school based curricula. The order of OCB among teachers in both types of schools with school based curricula was: towards the teachers, towards the organization, and last towards the students. It should further be noted that in comparison to differences that were found between the two types of schools in attitudes, the differences in organizational citizenship behavior are much stronger.

To sum up the third research hypothesis, it was found that teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula are higher in their attitudes and primarily in their organizational citizenship behavior than are teachers who teach in schools without school based curricula. These differences were found to be very significant both in attitudes and primarily in organizational citizenship behavior. It was further found that among the variables of attitudes the highest attitude that was expressed in both types of schools was that of satisfaction while the lowest was towards value congruence commitment. However, the gap between the commitment to the organization in its two types was highest among the attitudes variables. Of the OCB variables it was found that the highest gap between schools was found in the OCB teachers when it was the highest variable among teachers in schools with school based curricula and the lowest among teachers in schools without school based curricula.

Additional Analyses on the Level of the Organization

The third research hypothesis on the relationships between organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes and the level of the organization addressed only the one variable of schools with school based curricula as opposed to schools without school based curricula, since according to the research perception this variable is central and significant and may have decisive impact on the behavior and attitudes of the teachers. However, the present research found a number of additional demographic variables on the level of organization and it was decided to examine them, although they had not been the subject of a research hypothesis and therefore, these variables were not introduced into the final model. These variables include:

1. School character: Differences in the attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior of teachers who teach in state schools as opposed to teachers who teach in state religious schools.
2. School age: Relationships between years of experience in the school and the attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers.
3. School size: Differences in the attitudes of teachers who teach in small schools as opposed to teachers who teach in large schools.

1. School Character: State vs. State Religious

To examine whether there is a difference in the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes between teachers who teach in state schools and teachers who teach in state religious schools, multivariate variance analyses were conducted that examined the differences between these two groups in the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes, in interaction with the two types of schools. The analysis performed was 2X2.

The number of the teachers who teach in state schools is 207 versus 103 teachers who teach in state religious schools. The means, standard deviations, and F values of the entire sample are presented in table number 17. The means, standard deviations, and F values for the interactions are presented in table number 18.

Table Number 17:
Differences between Teachers in State Schools as opposed to Teachers
in State Religious Schools in Organizational Citizenship Behavior and
Attitudes

	State Schools	State Religious Schools	F(P)
OCB Teachers	3.98 (.75)	4.11 (.59)	26.63***
OCB Students	2.90 (.71)	3.17 (.69)	38.42***
OCB Organization	3.47 (1.03)	3.66 (.86)	21.97***
Affective Commitment	3.87 (.76)	3.89 (.76)	3.56*
Value Congruence Commitment	3.43 (.95)	3.72 (.74)	29.04***
Perceived Organizational Support	3.83 (.74)	3.93 (.60)	6.70*
Job Satisfaction	4.13 (.65)	4.26 (.57)	10.36**

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Table Number 18:
Interaction between State School as opposed to State Religious School
and School Type in Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes

	Schools with School Based Curricula		Schools without School Based Curricula		F(P)
	State Schools	State Religious Schools	State Schools	State Religious Schools	
OCB Teachers	4.45 (.35)	4.49 (.35)	3.22 (.60)	3.79 (.56)	21.67***
OCB Students	3.28 (.52)	3.54 (.50)	2.29 (.51)	2.86 (.68)	5.47*
OCB Organization	4.03 (.62)	4.25 (.48)	2.56 (.91)	3.17 (.81)	4.96*
Affective Commitment	4.22 (.56)	4.16 (.68)	3.30 (.71)	3.66 (.75)	6.87*
Value Congruence Commitment	3.92 (.75)	4.06 (.55)	2.64 (.69)	3.44 (.77)	14.08***
Perceived Organizational Support	4.10 (.72)	4.05 (.62)	3.38 (.58)	3.83 (.58)	10.36**
Job Satisfaction	4.37 (.57)	4.52 (.43)	3.75 (.59)	4.04 (.59)	1.17

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

As can be seen in table number 17, significant differences were found between teachers who teach in state schools as opposed to teachers who teach in state religious schools in all the variables that were examined: organizational citizenship behavior in all its different indices and teacher attitudes. In all the variables the pattern of the differences found indicates that teachers who teach in state religious schools have higher organizational citizenship behavior than do teachers who teach in state schools.

However, examination of the interactions between the school character and the school type (with a school based curriculum versus without a school based curriculum) indicates significant interactions in all the variables with the exception of the variable of satisfaction. As can be seen in the means presented in table number 18, the pattern of the differences between the groups (state versus state religious) is different in each one of the types of schools (school based curricula versus without school based curricula). As aforementioned, with the exception of the variable of satisfaction, in the schools without school based curricula teachers who teach in state religious schools are higher in their

organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes than are teachers who teach in the state schools. These differences lessen and are even totally reduced in the schools with school based curricula. In other words, in schools with school based curricula the school character, state versus state religious, has no impact, in contrast to the schools without school based curricula.

2. School Age

It was found that the ages of the school in the research are very different. The schools range from relatively young schools, existing only for four years, to older schools that were established nearly when the country was established, 57 years old. The mean of the ages of the schools is 24 years, with a standard deviation of 13 years.

To examine the relationship between the school age and the behavior and attitudes of the teachers Pearson correlations were calculated in the entire sample and in each school type separately. The findings are presented in table number 19.

Table Number 19:
Correlations between School Age and Teacher Organizational
Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes

	Entire Sample (N=298)	Schools with School Based Curricula (N= 172(Schools without School Based Curricula (N=126(
OCB Teachers	-.12*	-.02	-.31***
OCB Students	-.15*	-.07	-.32***
OCB Organization	-.08	-.04	-.16*
Affective Commitment	-.01	.08	-.15*
Value Congruence Commitment	-.17**	-.04	-.48***
Perceived Organizational Support	.05	.19	-.24**
Job Satisfaction	-.02	.08	-.20*

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

As can be seen in table number 19, in the schools with school based curricula there is no significant relationship between the school age and the variables of attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers. In the schools without school based curricula significant negative relationships of different strengths were found between the school age and all the variables of the attitudes and behavior of the teachers. Thus, for example significant negative relationships of

intermediate strengths were found between the school age and the organizational citizenship behavior towards the students ($r=-.32$, $p<.001$) and teachers ($r=-.31$, $p<.001$) and of lower strength between the school age and the organization ($r=-.16$, $p<.05$). A strong relationship was found between the school age and value congruence commitment ($r=-.48$, $p<.001$) in schools without school based curricula and weak relationships with the other attitudes variables (ranging between $r=.15$ and $r=.24$). These findings indicate that as the school without school based curricula is younger, the attitudes and the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers are higher. The reverse is also true (as the school is older, the attitudes and citizenship behavior of its teachers is also lower.) As aforementioned no relationship was found between the school age and the attitudes and behavior of teachers in the schools with school based curricula.

3. School Size

The schools in the sample can be divided by size into small schools (three hundred to six hundred students) and large schools (above six hundred schools). In this sample it was found that 204 teachers teach in small schools and 110 teach in large schools. To examine whether there is a difference in the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes of teachers who teach in small versus large schools, multivariate variance analyses were performed to examine the differences between these two groups. The analysis is therefore 2X2 (school size X schools type).

Table number 20 presents the means, standard deviations, and F scores of the entire sample. Table number 21 presents the means, standard deviations, and F scores of the interactions.

Table Number 20:
Means, Standard Deviations, and F Values for the Examination of the
Differences in the Attitudes and Organizational Citizenship Behavior of
Teachers Who Teach in Small versus Large Schools

	School Size		F(P)
	300-600 Students	600+ Students	
OCB Teachers	3.98 (.68)	4.10 (.73)	.51
OCB Students	2.95 (.71)	3.07 (.72)	.06
OCB Organization	3.48 (.97)	3.62 (1.00)	.68
Affective Commitment	3.88 (.73)	3.85 (.82)	3.47*
Value Congruence Commitment	3.55 (.89)	3.48 (.91)	4.44*
Perceived Organizational Support	3.95 (.63)	3.69 (.79)	19.39***
Job Satisfaction	4.21 (.61)	4.12 (.66)	5.63*

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Table Number 21:
Interaction between School Size and School Type in the Organizational
Citizenship Behavior and Attitudes

	Schools with School Based Curriculum		Schools with School Based Curriculum		F(P)
	300-600 Students	600+ Students	300-600 Students	600+ Students	
OCB Teachers	4.42 (.35)	4.51 (.34)	3.51 (.64)	3.33 (.64)	5.09*
OCB Students	3.31 (.54)	3.42 (.51)	2.57 (.66)	2.42 (.61)	3.15*
OCB Organization	4.04 (.62)	4.16 (.55)	2.88 (.92)	2.61 (.88)	4.77*
Affective Commitment	4.24 (.52)	4.14 (.70)	3.51 (.73)	3.30 (.77)	.41
Value Congruence Commitment	4.04 (.63)	3.82 (.78)	3.02 (.83)	2.85 (.79)	.09
Perceived Organizational Support	4.23 (.57)	3.88 (.80)	3.66 (.56)	3.31 (.65)	.00
Job Satisfaction	4.47 (.53)	4.32 (.55)	3.92 (.57)	3.74 (.68)	.04

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

As table number 20 shows, a significant difference was not found in the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers who teach in small schools as opposed to teachers who teach in large schools. However, significant interactions were found in all three of these variables (table number 21). A look at the means shows that a completely opposite pattern exists in each one of the school types. While in the schools with school based curricula teachers who teach in large schools report a higher OCB, in schools without school based curricula teachers in small schools report a high OCB (school based curricula). However, examination of these differences using a series of t tests indicates that neither of these cases is significant. In schools with school based curricula: difference between small schools as opposed to large schools in the organizational citizenship behavior towards the teachers ($t(174df)=1.80$, $p>.05$), in the organizational citizenship behavior towards the students ($t(174df)=1.44$, $p>.05$), and in the organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization ($t(174df)=1.29$, $p>.05$). In schools without school based curricula: difference between small schools as opposed to large schools in the organizational citizenship behavior towards the teachers ($t(136df)=1.31$, $p>.05$), in the

organizational citizenship behavior towards the students ($t(136df)=1.46$, $p>.05$), and in the organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization ($t(136df)=1.83$, $p>.05$).

It can therefore be summed up that significant differences were not found between small schools and large schools in the organizational citizenship behavior.

Examination of the differences between small schools and large schools in the teachers' attitudes indicates that in the attitudes there are significant differences in all the variables of the attitudes when teachers who teach in small schools report more positive attitudes than do teachers who teach in large schools. This pattern was found in both schools with school based curricula and schools without school based curricula.

3. The Research Model

As noted in the chapter of the research hypotheses/questions, the present research study proposed an integrative model that simultaneously examines the constellation of the relationships and influences among the research variables. According to this model, it was hypothesized that variables on the level of the individual (teacher attitude and teacher demographic variables) would influence the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers. It was further hypothesized that variables on the level of the organization, namely schools with school based curricula as opposed to schools without school based curricula, would influence the attitudes of the teachers as well as their organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, it was hypothesized that it can be expected that some of the demographic variables would be introduced into the model and would be found to influence (positively or negatively) the attitudes and the organizational citizenship behavior.

To examine empirically the model, it was proposed to use the AMOS program that enables structural equation modeling analysis, which incorporates measurement models and structural models. Through the measurement model, it is possible to reduce the number of variables observed by building latent variables (factors) and through the structural model it is possible to examine the research hypotheses on the impacts and relationships between the different variables.

The structural equation model has the following advantages:

1. It enables the analysis of multivariate data used to simultaneously estimate a complex system of relationships.
2. It enables coping with variables of different types.
3. It copes with dependent relationships among variables.
4. It takes into account possible measurement errors.

This method therefore incorporates path analysis and factor analysis. In other words, the model enables the direct and indirect influences and causal relationships to be examined.

Variables Observed in the Model

On the basis of the research findings, which were examined according to the research hypotheses, it was decided to introduce into the model the following observed variables.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), including three observed variables of organizational citizenship behavior towards students (STUDENTS), teachers (TEACHERS), and organization (ORG).

Teacher attitudes (ATTIT) including four observed variables of affective commitment (COMMITE), value congruence commitment (COMMITV), perceived organizational support (SUPPORT), and job satisfaction (SATIS).

Demographic variables on the level of the individual include in the model three observed variables: education (EDUC), position scope (MISRA2), and teaching experience (VETEK2). It should be noted in this context that it was decided following the findings of research hypothesis number 2 not to introduce into the model two other demographic variables: teacher type (homeroom teacher versus subject teacher), since the number of research subjects in this analysis is significantly smaller, as was explained previously, and management role, since the number of teachers with management roles is relatively small and it is a variable that is closely related to the other demographic variables in the model (education, experience, and position scope).

Variables on the level of the organization: The only observed variable that was entered into the model is the school type (schools with school based curricula versus schools without school based curricula)

(GROUP). This is the significant main variable of the research and was the focus of the research hypotheses.

Thus, the total number of observed variables in the model is eleven.

Latent Variables in the Model

In the proposed model there are three latent variables: organizational citizenship behavior, which includes three variables of OCB, attitudes, which has four variables of attitudes, and a demographic variable that includes three demographic variables. The only variable that does not enter a latent variable, since it is independent, is the observed variable of school type.

Direct Influences in the Model

- Direct influences of the school type, namely schools with school based curricula as opposed to schools without school based curricula (GROUP) on the attitudes (ATTIT) and on the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).
- Direct influences of the demographic variables on the level of the individual (DEMOG) on attitudes (ATTIT) and on the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).
- Direct influence of attitudes (ATTIT) on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Indirect Influences in the Model

- Indirect influence on the school type (GROUP), on the organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) through attitudes (ATTIT).
- Indirect influence of the demographic variables (DEMOG) on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) through attitudes (ATTIT).

Relationships in the Model (No Assumption of Causality)

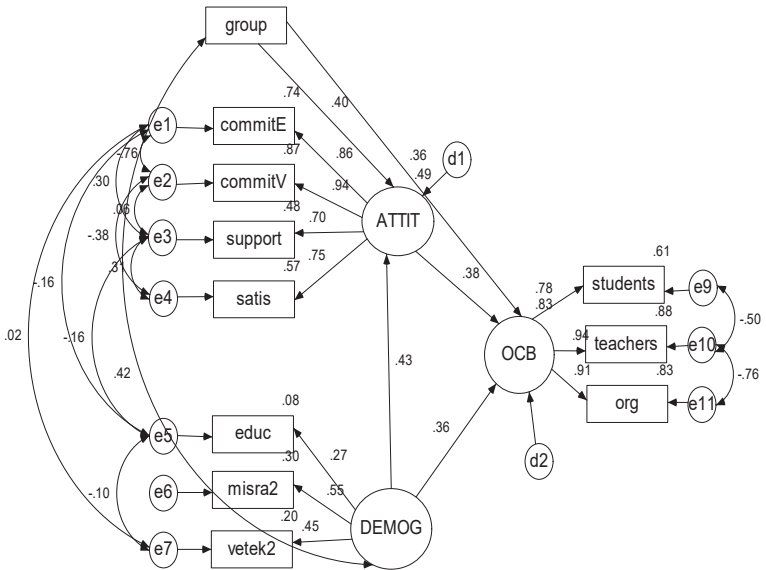
- Relationships between the variable of school type and demographic variables (since a number of significant differences were found between the two types of schools in the demographic variables).

- Relationships between the errors of some of the observed variables.

Examination of the Model

Figure number 6 presents the structural model with all its normalized measures. The measures of the quality of fit of the model appear under it.

Figure Number 6:
Structural Model for the Examination of Organizational Citizenship Behavior



Chi-square=50.485 df=28 p=.006
AGFI=.934 RMSEA=.051 NFI=.973 PCLOSE=.452

As figure number 6 shows, the different indices of quality of fit indicate that the model indeed loyally reflects the system of relationships and influences that exists in reality among the different variables. The indices of fit are:

1. Chi-square test, which has to be divided into a number of degrees of freedom of the model (28). From this calculation a value lower than 2 is obtained (1.80), therefore indicating the model fit.
2. The AGFI index (goodness of fit) was high, nearly 1, thus indicating the model fit.
3. The RMSEA index (root mean square residual) was relatively low, thus indicating fit.
4. The PCLOSE index was also relatively low, thus indicating fit.

In addition to the different indices of fit, all the t tests of the different relationships and influences in the model were significant, as will be immediately detailed, and this fact, too, indicates the model fit.

Examination of the Research Hypotheses according to the Structural Model

The examination of the research hypotheses of the influences of the model is presented in table number 22. These include the direct influences of one variable on the other, the indirect influences, if there are any, and the sum of the influences (direct influence + indirect influence).

Table Number 22:
Standard Measures (β) of the Influences in the Model and the
Significance of the Direct and Indirect Influences

		Direct Influence	Indirect Influence	Total Influence
School Type	→ Attitudes	.40 (t=5.79***)	-	.40
School Type	→ OCB	.36 (t=7.37***)	.15	.51
Demographic	→ Attitudes	.43 (t=2.82**)	-	.43
Demographic	→ OCB	.36 (t=2.72**)	.16	.52
Attitudes	→ OCB	.38 (4.75***)	-	.38

As table number 22 and figure number 6 show, all the research hypotheses were confirmed when all the influences examined in the model were found significant. The variable of with/without school based curricula significantly influences attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior of teachers, demographic variables significantly influence attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior, and the variable of attitudes significantly influences organizational citizenship behavior.

It should be cited further that in cases in which there are both direct and indirect influences, the direct influences are the strongest and most significant as opposed to the indirect influences, which are relatively weak.

Examination of the variables that most influence the organizational citizenship behavior indicates the following pattern: examination of the direct influences on the OCB shows that the measures were almost completely identical, namely, there was a very similar influence of the three variables on the organizational citizenship behavior: the school type ($\beta=.36$), attitudes ($\beta=.38$), and demographic variables ($\beta=.36$). However, the test and its significance indicate that the school type is the most significant in terms of its influence on the OCB: school type ($t=7.37$, $p<.001$), attitudes ($t=4.75$, $p<.001$), and demographic variables ($t=2.72$, $p<.01$). Examination of the general

influences (including indirect influence) indicates that the influence of the school type ($\beta = .51$) is very similar to that of the demographic variables ($\beta = .52$), as opposed to the variable of attitudes, which is the lowest ($\beta = .38$). However, as aforementioned, the intensity of the significance was found the highest in the variable of the school type.

To sum up, the findings indicate that although the three examined variables were found to significantly influence (similarly relatively) the variable of organizational citizenship behavior, it is nevertheless possible to arrange them by strength. The variable with the strongest influence on the organizational citizenship behavior is the variable on the level of the organization, namely, the school, when teachers in schools with school based curricula report higher organizational citizenship behavior towards teachers, students, and the organization. However, it should be noted that in the model as well, as in the previous examination of the means, it is possible to see that organizational affiliation primarily influences the organizational citizenship behavior towards the organization and towards the teachers and less the students.

The variable with the next strongest influence on the organizational citizenship behavior is the teacher demographic variables. Of the demographic variables, the most influential variable is the variable of the position scope, and then the variable of the teaching experience, and last the teacher education.

Last, the variable of teacher attitudes is the third in its influence when among the four variables of the attitudes the strongest is the variable of commitment to the school (affective and value congruence) and next is perceived organizational support and job satisfaction.

Discussion

The primary objective of the present research study was to examine the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers, its characteristics, and the factors that encourage and influence this behavior, so as to add to the theoretical and empirical knowledge that exists on the topic. This behavior is defined as behavior that is not included in the individual's role definition and is not identified directly by the organization's formal system of rewards but contributes to the organization's effectiveness (Organ, 1990). The research of this behavior has considerable significance due to two main reasons: first, due to its significant contribution to the organization since this behavior is beneficial, essential, and even critical to the functioning of organizations and to their effectiveness (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997), and second, due to the possibility of improving and increasing this behavior among workers and thus improving the organizational effectiveness and helping the organization (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001; McNeely and Meglino, 1994).

The research perception sees the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior to be a broad and multidimensional concept. This behavior can be directed towards students, teachers, and the school and is influenced by different factors related to the individual and the organization. While the research till now has focused on the understanding of the phenomenon and the attempt to strengthen it primarily on the level of the individual, the present research proposes an integrative model for the understanding of this phenomenon in which variables on the level of the individual and variables on the level of the organization are incorporated and thus enable the concurrent examination of the influence of each one of the elements on this behavior. On the level of the individual, teachers' attitudes (commitment to the school, perceived organizational support, and satisfaction) and demographic variables (experience, education, age, and position) were examined. On the level of the organization the main organization trait examined was schools with school based curricula in comparison to regular schools, since researchers note that this process has significant products in the school (Kaspy, 1988). However, to the best of my knowledge the impact of this variable on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior was not examined. Alongside the variable of school based curricula, the relationship between additional demographic

variables of the school (size, age, and definition as state or state religious) and the organizational citizenship behavior was examined. In addition to the main objective, the system of relations between the school type and the teachers' attitudes and between the demographic variables and teachers' attitudes was examined.

The uniqueness of the research study lies in its simultaneous examination of factors on the level of the individual and on the level of the organization as influencing the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and in the presentation of an integrative model for the explanation of the behavior and the relationships among the variables. In addition, the innovation of the research lies in the fact that it was conducted in two different types of schools: schools with school based curricula and schools without school based curricula. This derived from the recommendation of researchers to study organizational citizenship behavior of workers in different organizations since it was thought that the organizations may have decisive impact on the workers' behavior and attitudes. However, few researches have done this (Bommer, Miles, and Grover, 2003; Dunlop and Lee, 2004).

The results of the research study obtained through the integrative model and additional analyses, such as variance analyses and correlations, showed that the teachers' attitudes, demographic variables, school type (with school based curricula / without school based curricula), and additional variables on the level of the organization influenced the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, the teachers' attitudes variables were influenced by the variable of school based curricula and by the demographic variables. The variable of type of school is significant and most influences the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and their attitudes.

Knowledge of the factors that influence the teachers' OCB may shed light on the nature of the behavior and bring about theoretical understandings and applicative implications that will enable the determiners of educational policy and the school principals to increase organizational citizenship behavior among the teachers. The following sections address the research results and the understandings and implications that arise from it.

1. Dimensions and Characteristics of Organizational Citizenship Behavior among Teachers

The research findings, as obtained in the integrative model and in the different analyses, showed that the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior is a multidimensional variable. Similar findings were obtained in different work organizations (for instance, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bacharach, 2000) and in schools (for instance, Cohen, 2006; Vigoda-Gadot, Beeri, Birman-Shemesh, and Somech, 2007). The different analyses show that OCB among teachers includes different expressions of behavior directed towards students, teachers, and the school and these three dimensions are significantly different from one another. These results are commensurate with previous researches that identified these three dimensions among teachers (Bogler and Somech, 2005; Somech and Bogler, 2002; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000), as opposed to other researches that maintained that in schools the dimensions of behavior are reduced to one dimension of OCB (DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran, 2001; DiPaola and Hoy, 2005). According to these results, it is recommended to continue to research organizational citizenship behavior as a multidimensional variable, as recommended by other researchers of education (for instance, Cohen, 2006; Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000; Vigoda-Gadot et al., 2007).

In addition, the findings show that teachers report different strengths of each one of the dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, when the OCB towards teachers is the highest, then OCB towards the school, and last OCB towards the students. Although the results of the present research are similar to those obtained in a previous research (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000), it causes one to wonder: why is the OCB towards the students, who are the very heart of teaching, who are the aim of teaching, is the lowest? It appears that it is possible to explain this result according to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Organ and Konovsky, 1989), which is accepted upon the researchers as an explanation of the OCB. The social exchange theory maintains that workers will adopt this behavior as a selective reward towards the organization and towards certain people in return for the support and help that the latter accord them. Workers tend to perform these behaviors so as to receive different 'rewards' from the organization (Feather and Rauter, 2004).

However, here is the place to note that not every behavior of the organizational citizenship behavior type has identical potential for reward; some behaviors have a greater chance that if they are performed they will be rewarded, for example, behaviors performed publically or directed towards people who can reward them. Thus, a teacher who adopts organizational citizenship behavior towards the school (for instance, decorating or helping the principal) or who directs organizational citizenship behavior towards his colleagues (for instance, offering to help or to give materials to his peers) has a greater chance of being rewarded. In both of these cases, the potential for reciprocity and reward is considerable, since the management staff or teachers who enjoyed this behavior may reward the teacher or convey the message to the principal. In contrast, OCB towards the students is less public and in addition is directed towards a young population that cannot give a reward. The chances are relatively low that it will be noticed that the teacher gives up his recess to talk to a student or that a teacher spends time at home to prepare a curriculum suited to a student with difficulties. In addition, the students themselves certainly cannot reward the teacher, as the principal or another adult can. Therefore, apparently teachers prefer to adopt behaviors directed towards the school, the organization, where there is a greater potential for reward.

It is possible that this explanation may anger people of education who see the teaching profession as an 'ideological' and 'moral' profession and not one undertaken from the desire for compensation (Day, 1999; Nias, 1999). The response is that this behavior is not rewarded officially-economically but socially, for example, in verbal appreciation or possibilities for advancement (Bolino, 1999). In addition, it must not be forgotten that OCB by its definition is a voluntary behavior, which is not included in the role requirements. Apparently, a teacher, like any other worker, expects that this type of behavior will be accorded some reward.

Another perspective of this result is that the many changes that the educational system has experienced in recent years have led to a broad and comprehensive viewpoint of the nature and role of teaching (Blasé and Blasé, 1996; Clement and Vandenberghe, 2000). Due to these changes, there is increasing perception that the teacher's role is not limited to the classroom walls and he does not work alone as defined in the past (Lortie, 1975). The teacher belongs to the community of the

teachers and the organization, works in collaboration with the teachers in the school, and has many organizational roles beyond the teaching. This perception brings the teachers, apparently, to understand that these areas are central to their functioning and advancement to the point that they focus on these activities and contribute in them above and beyond their duty. The teachers maintain that their contribution towards the colleges or the school is most meaningful today to their role as teachers and these actions will be appreciated and rewarded by the principals (Motowidlo, 2000).

2. The Relationship between Variables on the Level of the Individual and the Organizational Citizenship Behavior of Teachers

2.1 Teachers' Attitudes as Influencing the Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The first research hypothesis proposed that there are positive relationships between the teachers' attitudes and their organizational citizenship behavior. The research results confirmed this hypothesis and showed that teachers whose attitudes are high have high organizational citizenship behavior towards the students, teachers, and school and the reverse also holds true. According to the theoretical background, it was explained that positive attitudes influence the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior in the social exchange process since when workers are satisfied in the workplace, feel that the organization supports them, and feel committed to it, then they will behave with reciprocity and will perform organizational citizenship behavior towards it and its clients (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Flynn, 2003; Graham, 1991). These findings are commensurate with the findings of previous research studies that found a relationship between satisfaction and OCB among workers and teachers (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Bragger et al., 2005; Lee and Allen, 2002) and a relationship between commitment to the organization and OCB of workers and teachers (Bogler and Somech, 2004; Cohen 2006; Cohen 2007; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnysky, 2002).

In addition, the research found that the teachers' perceived organizational support is related to their OCB. This variable was found to be related to the workers' behavior in other organizations (Bateman

and Organ, 1983; Shore and Wayne, 1993), however, to the best of my knowledge, the impact of this variable among teachers was not examined. This finding indicates that when teachers feel that the school is committed to them, cares for their well being, and appreciates their work they will increase their organizational citizenship behavior.

The research of Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), which summarized dozens of researches conducted on the perceived organization support, shows that workers that perceive the organization and their superiors as one unit, the superiors are in essence the emissaries of the organization and they have the responsibility for direction and evaluation of the workers. Hence, it is possible to understand the considerable power of the school principal in the encouragement and increase of the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers under his responsibility.

As was noted, although all the relationships between the attitudes and the organizational citizenship behavior are significant, it becomes clear that the strength of the relationship between the teachers' attitudes and the OCB towards the students is lower than the strength of the relationship between teachers' attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior towards the teachers and the organization. In other words, the teachers' attitudes influenced more the organizational citizenship behavior towards the school and its teachers. It is possibly that the explanation of this situation is the fact that the teacher's basic and main task, the task that differentiates him from other workers, is the didactic pedagogy directed towards the students (Oplatka, 2006). The teacher needs to be directed, first and foremost, towards the students' needs and development (Shulman, 1987) and he is expected to do as much as possible to promote his students and make them into fair adults and citizens in society (Socket, 1993). Hence, the primary goal of teachers and the schools is to promote the students and this is part of the teachers' basic outlook (DiPaola and Wayne, 2005).

Since the promotion of the students is anchored in the general and basic outlook of every teacher, the teachers adopt different activities and even go beyond their duty to meet this task, regardless of their attitudes. This result can inspire optimism, especially for those who engage in education, since the teachers' OCB towards their students, who are the very heart of teaching, depends relatively less on the teachers' personal attitudes. It is likely that we would not tranquilly accept the knowledge

that teachers perform organizational citizenship behavior towards their students only when they are satisfied with the job or when they feel that the school is considerate and supportive of them. Nevertheless, as noted previously, the fact that OCB towards students was relatively lower than the other OCB variables should not be ignored. This fact should be addressed in the framework of the recommendations.

It further becomes clear that although all the relationships between attitudes and OCB are significant, the strongest relationships, as arising from the integrative model and the other analyses, were found between the dimensions of commitment and OCB, when the strongest impact on the teachers' behavior is the commitment that derives from the congruence between the teacher's values and those of the schools. In contrast, the weakest influence was that of satisfaction. This datum is interesting in light of previous researches that noted that job satisfaction is the main and meaningful variable that leads to the workers' organizational citizenship behavior (Puffer, 1987; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983). The explanation lies, apparently, in the fact that most of the research of OCB was performed on workers in different work organizations and for them the most meaningful factor in the OCB was job satisfaction.

In contrast, as noted in the review of the literature, the teaching profession and teachers are different from the other sectors (Oplatka, 2006). Teaching is considered a 'moral' and 'ideological' profession that incorporates values and ideals and teachers who work in education act from motives of mission and moral commitment to society. Teaching is anchored in the concern for the well being of another individual, in 'doing good' for others, and in the universal values of justice, equality, and acceptance (Nias, 1999; Silberstein and Reichenberg, 2005). Therefore many people who turn to teaching come with a sense of mission and social commitment and they are motivated primarily by these values. Therefore, for the teachers the sense of congruence between their values and the values of the schools most significantly influences their OCB. Previous researches also indicated the strong relationship between the teacher's commitment and the school and their OCB (for instance, Bragger et al., 2005; Cohen, 2006, 2007). These researches did not specifically address the school commitment that derives from the value congruence and since this variable was most

significant, it is recommended to continue the research in a future research study.

A very interesting point is that although all the relationships between teachers' attitudes and the different types of OCB were strong, positive, and significant, differences were found in the strengths of the relationships between teachers who teach in schools with school based curricula and teachers who teach in schools without school based curricula. It became clear that in schools with school based curricula the strength of the relationships is low in comparison to in the regular schools. In other words, from the teachers' attitudes it is possible to learn about the 'power' of schools with school based curricula in comparison to that of regular schools: these schools succeed in 'blurring' or 'moderating' the impact of the personal attitudes of teachers on their OCB. This fact is addressed in detail in the section on the impact of the variable of the organization.

To sum up, it can be said that the teachers' attitudes are a key to the encouragement of the organizational citizenship behavior, because of the fact that the attitudes are formed and develop in a certain direction following a cognitive process of thinking – they can be changed. The attitudes that most influence the teachers' behavior were the commitment to the organization in its two dimensions. It was also seen that the variable of the organization – the type of the school – has influence on the teachers' attitudes. These findings are important to the shapers of educational policy and to the school principals, since they can facilitate the encouragement and the development of positive attitudes among teachers, which will lead to organizational citizenship behavior, as will be detailed in the continuation.

2.2 The Influence of Demographic Variables on the Teacher OCB and Attitudes

According to the literature review, research hypotheses were not posited on the relationship between the demographic variables and the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and their attitudes, since the theoretical background did not allow this. The research results showed that the demographic variables had a significant influence on the teachers' behavior and on their attitudes.

Education

It appears that in all aspects related to the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers there are significant differences between teachers of different levels of education and that as the level of education rises, the teachers' report a higher level of OCB towards teachers and towards the organization. These findings on the relationship between education and organizational citizenship behavior are commensurate with previous researches (Gregerson, 1993; Smith et al., 1983). The researchers explain that workers with a higher education see their role in a broader context and acknowledge the contribution of the informal support of their work colleagues, the organization, and the clients in the comparison to workers with less education. This derives from the fact that workers with an advanced education for the most part staff more senior positions and roles in the organization and therefore they perceive the exchange system in social terms and less in economic concepts. For them, the economic exchange is defined and assured ahead of time in a formal contract with the organization and they are more available for the development of social exchange relations. These workers will adopt more OCB in comparison to workers with lower education, who perceive the exchange relations with the organization in more economic terms (Vigoda, 1999). While teachers who work in public schools do not have individual contracts with their employers, the teacher salary ranks economically express the teacher's education and therefore this explanation is relevant for the population of teachers in the research study.

It is interesting that a significant relationship was not found between the teacher's education and the organizational citizenship behavior towards the student – while the OCB towards the teachers and the school increased as the teacher had a higher education. This finding can be explained in that the most basic definition of the teaching role addresses the student himself and his development and advancement (The Ministry of Education, 1994; Jackson, 1986; Shulman, 1987). According to this perception, the teacher should be equipped with two main tools in his 'toolbox' and both tools address the student. First, the teacher needs to contribute to his students in terms of the field of knowledge and learning material (subject matter). This Shulman (1987) calls pedagogical content knowledge. Second, he needs to have knowledge towards the students he teaches, in other words, knowledge

on the child's world – or pedagogical learner knowledge. Since these two abilities are the basis of teaching, teacher training in its first stages is first and foremost aimed at achieving them (Wang and Odell, 2002). In light of the fact that the focus on the student is the basis of teaching, this focus is shared in the perception of all teachers and does not change with the acquisition of further education. In contrast, the behavior towards the school and the teachers changes with the acquisition of further education, in which the teachers extend their knowledge on additional aspects of teaching. This finding also strengthens the fact that there are different dimensions of OCB, since every dimension was found to be related differently to the researched variables.

Experience

In general, experience was related at low to moderate strengths to organizational citizenship behavior and to attitudes (with the exception of satisfaction) in two types of schools and as teachers had greater experience, they reported greater organizational citizenship behavior. This finding is commensurate with different researches, which explain that the more experienced worker in the organization has a more established system of relations and feels identification with and commitment to the workplace. Therefore, workers with greater experience evince more positive attitudes and will tend to perform more organizational citizenship behaviors (Gregerson, 1993; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Wagner and Rush, 2000).

Another explanation of the change that occurs with the rise in experience lies in the theories that engage in the life career stages model of workers and teachers. Researches showed that workers and teachers have different career stages, when each stage is characterized by different perceptions, attitudes, and even behavior (Huberman, 1992; Lynn, 2002; Slocum and Corn, 1985). While it is necessary to be precise that there is no absolute overlap between years of experience and the career stage, since the development stage is personal for each and every teacher, there is a relationship, since it is clear that stage of induction into the teaching role occurs when there is no experience, etc.

The literature that addresses the professional development of teachers presents different models. According to Fullan (1969) and Huberman (1975), in the first years the teachers are occupied with the skills of class organization and management, which enable them to

survive in the system, then the center of the work shifts to the subject matter and the enrichment of their information sources, and only as the years pass do the teachers achieve their didactic and pedagogical thinking and turn to broader topics that are related to the teaching work and develop their authentic and special personality.

Other researchers note the seven primary stages of the teachers' professional career, when each stage is characterized by perceptions, needs, and behavior (Fessler, 1992, 1995). It appears that more experienced teachers are after the first two stages of pre-service (training) and induction (entry into the role). These teachers may be in the third stage of the building of competency and skills or in the fourth stage of enthusiasm and growth. In these stages, the teachers are occupied in the work, invest their energy in the acquisition of work skills, and gradually acquire confidence in their abilities. The teachers in these stages are already less anxious of the role and they respond willingly to in-service training courses and workshops. They see the educational work to be a challenge and are interested in receiving the assessment of teachers and students. It can be said that as the teacher develops in his role, he is certain of his position and his abilities and he turns to develop behaviors beyond his duty, behaviors that may reward or promote him. It is interesting to note that the only difference between schools with school based curricula and regular schools in the issue of experience was in the OCB towards teachers. It became clear that in schools without school based curricula, with the rise in experience the teachers' OCB towards teachers rose and in the schools with school based curricula the experience did not influence this behavior (in any event, it was higher). It can hence be concluded that a school based curricula 'weakens' the impact of the teachers' personal variables (demographic and attitudes) and succeeds in creating higher behavior among teachers.

Position Scope

The integrative model and the other analyses indicate that teachers who have full-time positions were significantly higher in all the variables of attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior than were teachers with part-time positions. In addition, it seems that the position scope is the variable that most influenced the teachers' behavior and attitudes in regards to the other demographic variables.

These findings confirm previous researches that indicated a similar relationship between the position scope and the workers' attitudes and behavior (Feldman and Doeringhaus, 1981; Peters et al., 1981; Stamper and Van Dyne, 2001). The researchers link these findings with the exchange theory and reciprocity (Blau, 1964). They assert that full-time workers feel belonging and considerable commitment to the organization and therefore they are confident in reciprocity and motivated by social exchange. These workers believe that they will be rewarded for their contribution in the future, whether in general or in a more abstract manner, and therefore they adopt OCB. In contrast, workers in a part-time position are interested primarily in developing the economic exchange. In their relations with the organization they expect to obtain a real and defined contribution from the organization for their behavior and therefore they will not adopt behaviors that go beyond what is required of their role (McLean Parks et al., 1998; Millward and Hopkins, 1998). Reinforcement of this argument is provided by Hipple (1998, in Stamper and Van Dyne, 2001), who maintains that part-time workers receive fewer incentives from the organization than do full-time workers, since employers tend to invest more in the workers who may provide them with return on investment. When the workers work more hours, they have more opportunities to invest and to bring benefit to the organization and therefore the employers expect that their investment will pay off and they provide the workers with more incentives.

Another reason for the gaps in the performance of behaviors is related to the superiors' level of expectations. Superiors expect less from part-time workers (Tsui et al., 1995), since these workers, according to the perception of the superiors, plan to contribute less to the organization. The superiors maintain that workers prefer to work part-time since they desire to exploit the rest of the time for other things, for instance, work in another place, or family reasons (Ferber and Waldfogel, 1998). In addition, employers sometimes assert that the workers treat their part-time job in the organization as a temporary job and not as a long-term position (Feldman and Doeringhaus, 1992). The employer's low level of expectations brings the workers to limit their work to what is expected of them and to perform less. It can be said, therefore, that the position scope that expresses the actual time that the teacher is found in the school creates expectations, a system of rewards, and commitment to the organization that influence his behavior and

attitudes in a most significant manner in regards to the demographic variables.

The fact that the position scope was found to be strongly related with OCB towards teachers is rather understood in light of the definition of the school structure as a 'loosely coupled organization' (Weick, 1976). In the schools each teacher works in his classroom, and this makes the constant interaction among the teachers during the work day difficult. This structure makes the creation of relationships and commitment among the teachers difficult, especially for teachers who are found only a few hours in school. In contrast, teachers with full-time positions have more possibilities of meeting their colleagues in the framework of the work day, meetings, and events, so that they succeed in developing relations with and commitment to their peers and more voluntary behaviors are evinced towards other teachers.

Like with the variable of experience, in regards to the some of the variables it became clear that the gaps between teachers with full-time positions and teachers with part-time positions were reduced and even disappeared among schools with school based curricula. In these schools, teachers with full-time positions report higher organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes than in the regular schools. It can be said that the school based curriculum succeeds in creating similar behavior among teachers regardless of the position scope.

Teacher's Position: Homeroom Teachers, Subject Teachers, and Teachers with Management Positions

The research results show that another role in the school held by teachers, whether homeroom teacher or management role, influences the organizational citizenship behavior and attitudes. Homeroom teachers report a higher OCB towards the teachers and the organization and a higher commitment to the school in its two dimensions in comparison to subject teachers. The homeroom teacher is a defined role in the school that has a financial recompense and hourly credit, and thus there is the expectation on the part of the management and the other teachers for a greater contribution, and homeroom teachers, as do teachers with full-time positions, act as they are expected (Tsui et al., 1995). It is surprising that homeroom teachers, whose role is to care, to direct, and to guide their students, in addition to teaching them, reported citizenship behavior towards the school and the teachers, while in the behavior

towards the students differences were not found between them and the subject teachers. However, this result strengthens the previous assertion on the teacher's basic role in the development and promotion of his students. This role is shared by all teachers, whether they engage in a certain discipline and whether they are also homeroom teachers.

Another explanation of these results is that the homeroom teacher is also a social educational leader, responsible for the class and its needs and acting on its behalf, and he sets goals and helps achieve them. These teachers see their work in a broad perspective and are not satisfied with teaching alone, and therefore it is likely that they will perform more voluntary activities in the school. Moreover, the homeroom teacher is a role that causes constant interaction with different factors in the school: administration, teachers who teach in their class, etc. All these enrich the teacher's social experience and his perception, commitment, and behavior in regards to the school and the teachers. In contrast, a teacher who teaches a certain discipline is sometimes found in isolation and has no connection to other subjects and to teachers from other disciplines (Sarson, 1990).

Like the differences between the regular teachers and the homeroom teachers, differences were found between teachers in management position and regular teachers. Teachers in management positions reported higher OCB than did regular teachers; however, this focused on the behavior that was directed towards the school – as an organization. The teachers in management positions, like the homeroom teacher, are rewarded for their additional role and are expected to do more and they have responsibility and a broad role outlook. However, their role in the hierarchical structure of the school leads them to adopt behaviors directed towards the school and the principal. Teachers in management roles such as vice principals, management staff members, or subject coordinators encompass the entire school and they have a broad and inclusive perspective (Gugliemino and Carroll, 1979). These teachers are the main link for the achievement of the school goals and therefore it is likely that organizational citizenship behavior will be directed to the school as an organization (Brady, 1984; Watts, 1980). It is likely that this finding may awaken the criticism that those who engage in management roles should contribute more than do regular teachers in all variables of the OCB and should present a personal example. Conversely, it must be remembered that researches that

engaged in hierarchy in organizations proved that those in the senior roles are those who have experience and ability to cope with the tasks and assignments related to the organization (Gugliemino and Carroll, 1979; Nir, 2001a).

Unlike their behavior, it became clear that all the attitudes variables were higher among teachers in the management roles in the comparison to regular teachers. Apparently, this was caused by the fact that these teachers are found in the center of the activity and initiative in the school and therefore also perceive the school and the role in a more positive role than do teachers who primarily engage in teaching. The management roles are in a high hierarchical place in the school and bring the role-holder esteem and respect. It is reasonable to assume that teachers in these roles feel personal and professional self-realization and hence a high sense of satisfaction. In addition, since they are partners in the management and decision making their commitment to the school and the feeling of support they feel they have from the management are understood. These results are commensurate with the findings of previous researches that found that people of different ranks of the different organization hierarchy differ in attitudes and behaviors and the role that the teacher fills has implications on his attitudes and behavior (Nir, 2001a).

To sum up this part, it is possible to see that the demographic variables significantly and uniquely influenced the OCB and attitudes of teachers, when the variable of position scope was most significant. These results are novel, since the demographic variables that were found to have influence in the present research were not examined, to the best of my knowledge, in a previous research that examined teacher OCB. Since the theoretical and empirical literature addressed this topic minimally, it is recommended to hold additional researches that may support the information obtained in the research and to find additional demographic variables that influence the OCB and attitudes of teachers. Furthermore, it was found that in schools with school based curricula the impact of the demographic variables is generally less, and even disappears. This finding leads to the following section, which specifically discusses the impact of the variable of the school as an organization on the teachers' attitudes and behavior.

3. The Influence of the Variable of the Organization – School on the Teacher Behavior and Attitudes

3.1 The Influence of the School with School Based Curricula on the Teacher OCB and Attitudes

The third research hypothesis specifically addressed the relationship between the school type and the teachers' behavior and attitudes. The results obtained from the integrative model, like from the other analyses, show that the variable of school based curricula most significantly influenced all the variables of attitudes and the dimensions of the OCB that were significantly higher in the schools with school based curricula. These results strengthen what was already mentioned in the sections that addressed the variables of attitudes and demographic variables – in these schools some of the influences of the variables on the level of the individual were lessened because of the strength of the variable of the school based curricula. Researchers note that attitudes are shaped as a result of positive experiences at work (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wallace, 1997).

The following question is asked. What is in the school with school based curricula that causes it to succeed in influencing so significantly the teachers' attitudes and citizenship behavior? The researchers maintain that the main product of writing school based curricula is not the curriculum itself but rather the special school experience and the development of the teacher, which occur in the process of the crystallization and formulation of the vision (Huberman, 1992; Kaspy, 1988). In these schools, which take into consideration the teachers' opinions and desires, a supportive environment with openness, cooperation, and teamwork develops – and develops multidirectional channels of communication (Conway and Calzi, 1996; Volansky, 2003). All these crystallize among the teachers positive attitudes of satisfaction and commitment to the school (Griffin, 1995; Shachar, 1997). To this is added the fact that the teacher himself, since he develops and writes the curriculum, determines his path, and realizes it, thus has feelings of development, satisfaction, and self-fulfillment, which increase his positive attitudes (Lamm, 1973; The Sudbury Valley School, 1970). It further becomes clear that the commitment to the organization and especially the dimension that examined the congruence between the individual's values and those of the organization had the greatest gap

between the different schools. This is understood because of the fact that in these schools the teachers wrote a shared vision that is based on the desires and values of the teachers' themselves. Thus, the teachers crystallize commitment to the organization that derives from the congruence between their values and those of the school and their affective commitment also increases, which includes attachment, identification, and belonging to the organization (Allen and Meyer, 1990; Mueller, Wallace, and Price, 1992). The shared vision brings people to say 'our' organization and not 'their' organization, thus expressing and emotional relationships and belonging (Senge, 1995). The school, therefore, has significant impact on the teachers' attitudes and as aforementioned, the attitudes also directly influence the teachers' behavior, so that the school influences the behavior indirectly, through the teachers' attitudes.

But more significant than this indirect influence is the direct influence of the school on the behavior of the teachers. The different analyses show that the variable of the organization is the most significant in terms of its influence on each one of the dimensions of the OCB of the teachers, which are significantly higher than those of the teachers in the regular schools. The school based curriculum, therefore, not only influences the attitudes but also has greater strength since it changes the teachers' behavior. It becomes clear that the unique atmosphere and spirit in these schools promote the teachers' reciprocity and according to the social exchange theory the teachers want to reward the school through the performance of OCB. Moreover, it appears that beyond the atmosphere and general spirit in these schools there is the supreme importance of the fact that the contents of the school based curricula are based on educational philosophy, or in other words, on values, and these values lead the teacher to do more than his role obligates him so as to achieve them.

It appears that every person who acts from a vision, like people with religious belief, will do above and beyond to realize his belief. It must be remembered that the values and the vision are not of one or two teachers but are shared by the entire teaching staff. It creates a community of teachers that is united around it and it gives them courage and power to do what is necessary so as to achieve it (Senge, 1995). Teachers in these schools adopt citizenship behavior and direct it towards different factors in the school, since a contribution to each one

of them leads to the achievement of the school goals. It is interesting that the citizenship behavior directed towards the teachers had the greatest gap from its parallel in the regular schools. This appears only natural in the schools with school based curricula, which are learning organizations, where the teachers are united around a shared vision and shared goals and where there is teamwork, significant interactions and relations are created. These relationships lead to reciprocity and explain why the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior is directed primarily towards the other teachers, who are their partners. Another point is that although all the variables of behavior are higher in the school with school based curricula, the smallest gap between the schools was found in the behavior directed towards the students. In other words, like the variables of the individual, the variable of the organization less influenced the OCB towards the students. Despite the reasons presented here to explain the phenomenon, it is unfortunate that the behavior directed towards the students is relatively the lowest and that the variables found to influence the OCB influenced this dimension relatively less.

To sum up, the variable of the organization was found as having the strongest influence on the organizational citizenship behavior of the teachers in regards to the variables of attitudes and the demographic variables. However, variables on the level of the organization were researched relatively less. In light of the considerable impact of the school on the teachers' OCB, it is recommended to continue to research traits of the schools and the influence of the teachers' citizenship behavior as different researchers recommended (Somech and Ron, 2007).

3.2 Additional Variables in the Realm of Organization

These variables were not included in the system of the hypotheses of the research since there were no empirical data that enable hypotheses to be posited and therefore they were also not introduced into the final model. Yet, nevertheless, the obtained results should be addressed.

State School versus State Religious School

The multivariate variance analyses showed that teachers who teach in the state religious schools have higher organizational citizenship behavior and higher attitudes than do teachers who teach in

the state schools. Before the explanation of these results is discussed, it is necessary to explain what is state religious education and what is its significance and accordingly the results are explained.

State religious education constitutes an inseparable part of the general state education system in Israel. Its role is to provide educational services for the public interested in both a state education and a religious education. On the one hand, state religious education has administrative and ideological autonomy and is subordinate to the state administration while on the other hand, the approach of state religious education is to instill among the students a lifestyle according to the spirit of tradition and religion and to train them to fit into modern society. The institutions of state religious education have a curriculum adjusted to the religious lifestyle, and the teaching staff and students adhere to defined rules of religious behavior (Gross, 2003; Schwarzwald, 1990). State religious education has a clear doctrine that reflects a Zionist religious perception and it is imprinted in the curriculum that combines Bible with good conduct (Maslovetti and Gaziel, 1997). The teacher has unique goals in the areas of the fulfillment of the commandments, religion, belief, and social values in addition to the general educational goals (Dagan, Label, and Greenboim, 1992). Although the state religious schools are different and diverse (Leslovey and Rich, 2001), it can be said that the teachers of state religious education shared an ideology and a social and religious, and value oriented belief, which is expressed in the schools where they teach. It can further be said that the teachers of state religious education are united about their religious belief and the clear educational doctrine, which is commensurate with their workplace in the schools. These explain the high attitudes and willingness to do more OCB in comparison to teachers in regular education. These teachers feel that their values and religious beliefs are similar to those of the school and thus they are more committed to the school, more satisfied with their work, and willing to do above and beyond their formal role to realize their belief and values.

It is interesting to note that the state religious schools are similar in certain respects to the schools with school based curricula, since in both settings the educational staff shares a vision and a belief, when in state religious education this is religious belief and in schools with school based curricula the 'belief' is the educational vision that is written and being implemented. In the school based curriculum the

teachers wrote the program themselves and in state religious education it is based on an entrenched belief, a written religion, but in both cases the teachers identify with and share the vision and the educational outlook of the school and thus their positive attitudes and motivation to act are clear. In addition, in both the teachers act out of the same 'religion' or belief, and this action, which is also based on emotion, brings the person considerable motivation to act.

Reinforcement of the aforementioned assertion was found in the examination of the interactions between the school definition (state religious versus state) and the school type (with school based curricula versus without school based curricula). It became clear that in schools with school based curricula the definition of the school (state or state religious) was not significant, since all the teachers were high in OCB and attitudes (with the exception of satisfaction), while in the regular schools, the state religious teachers were higher than were the state education teachers. This fact, which strengthens the impact of the school based curricula, can also lead to the conclusion that the school based curriculum gives to the schools what religious belief gives to the state religious schools.

School 'Age'

The results showed that only in regular schools was there a relationship between the school age and teacher attitudes and OCB. In the older schools, the teachers' attitudes and behaviors were lower than those of teachers in the younger schools. It appears that the reason lies in the fact that in the young schools there is a 'spirit' of innovation, creation, and originality that accompanies young organizations. This atmosphere that accompanies the teachers who engage in work leads to positive attitudes and considerable activity, even beyond the duty, so that the new school and its goals will succeed. In contrast, in older schools, apparently this spirit of creativity and innovation is eroded and diminished, and this explains the relatively low attitudes and behaviors of these teachers. The situation is different in schools with school based curricula, where the attitudes and behavior remained high over the years. The reason is that as previously asserted, the school based curricula is based on a vision and belief of all the teachers and its very existence is 'creativity' and innovation. In addition, the school based curriculum has a dynamic, renewing, and developing nature. Even after it is written the teachers can change it according to the needs and new goals of the

teaching faculty (Bush et al., 1993; Sergiovanni, 1994). Therefore, this type of school with goals and a vision that change according to what is required continues to enthuse the school staff to act and to preserve their high attitudes over the years.

School Size

The research results show that the school size was found related *only* to the variables of the teachers' attitudes but *not* to their organizational citizenship behavior and teachers who teach in small schools report more positive attitudes than do teachers who teach in larger schools. The research literature deliberates the question of the implications that the school size has on different variables (Cotton, 1996; Meir, 1996). Researches have shown that small schools have fewer behavior and violence problems, less dropping out of students, and a high academic learning image. In addition, the human relations between teachers and students are better (Cotton, 1996; Meir, 1996; Galleti, 1999; Raywid, 1999; Sharan, 1997). These advantages can explain the teachers' attitudes but are not significant enough to influence their behavior.

Summary and Implications

1. Summary

Organizational citizenship behavior is behavior that is not included in the individual's role definition and is not identified directly by the organization's formal system of rewards but contributes to the organization's effectiveness (Organ, 1990). Researches show that this behavior is beneficial, essential, and even critical to the functioning and survival of organizations (McNeely and Meglino, 1994). The main theoretical basis for the explanation of this behavior is the social exchange theory, which maintains that workers will perform these behaviors according to reciprocal norms as a 'reward' to the organization for its attitude and behavior towards them (Graham, 1991; Organ, 1988). Organizational citizenship behavior has a significant contribution to schools but this behavior has not been addressed extensively in the research of education (Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000).

The main objective of the research study was to examine the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers, its characteristics, and its antecedents so as to add to the theoretical and empirical knowledge of this topic. Worldwide research has primarily focused on the examination of factors on the level of the individual that influence this behavior and very few researches have examined variables on the level of the organization. Thus, the uniqueness of the present research study is that it examines, concurrently and in parallel, using an integrative model, the impact of variables on the level of the individual, which include the teachers' attitudes and demographic variables, and a variable on the level of the organization, schools with school based curricula and regular schools (without school based curricula), on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the research reveals an additional system of influences between the variable of school based curricula and teachers' attitudes and between the demographic variables and their attitudes.

It was found that all the variables of attitudes influence the organizational citizenship behavior and when the teachers feel that the school supports them, that they feel committed to it, and that they are satisfied, they adopted reciprocity and 'rewarded' the school with

considerable organizational citizenship behaviors. More significantly, the commitment to the school, which derived from the congruence between the school values and the teachers' values, had impact. Hence, it can be concluded that if the congruence between the teacher's beliefs and values and those of the school is created, then this will most significantly influence the teacher's willingness to undertake OCB. In addition, the results showed that demographic variables also influenced the teacher OCB and the teacher attitudes. Teachers with greater experience, higher education, and a high position scope who held another role in the school had higher attitudes and they performed more OCB. The results showed that the teacher's position scope had the most significant impact of all the demographic variables. When teachers worked more hours in the school, they felt a part of the organization and a sense of commitment. In addition, their superiors expected more of them and therefore they adopted more organizational citizenship behavior.

The variable of the school based curriculum is the main variable on the level of the organization examined in the present research and the research results show that it most significantly influenced in regards to all the variables of attitudes and the demographic variables on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, this variable had a considerable impact on the teachers' attitudes. It became clear that teachers in schools with school based curricula had more positive attitudes and had more considerable organizational citizenship behavior than did teachers who teach in regular schools. It can be said that schools that wrote school based curricula found the way or the 'formula' to raise the teachers' level of organizational citizenship behavior and this is the main and significant contribution of the present research.

Researchers note that schools that authored school based curricula are schools that are different in their very existence from the regular schools. In these schools the teachers are united around a shared vision, which is based on the teachers' attitudes and expressed in actuality in the school curriculum (Kaspy, 1988; Silberstein et al., 1988).

Nonetheless, the curriculum is just one of the products in these schools that are characterized by a democratic atmosphere, teamwork, and cooperation in the decision making. It can be said that schools with school based curricula are organizations that encourage and improve the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and develop positive

attitudes. An explanation is that the atmosphere of cooperation, democracy, shared learning, teamwork, and consideration of their opinions encourages the teachers, according to the social exchange theory, to undertake behaviors that go beyond their role requirements.

However, it appears that there is another explanation and it is linked to the teachers' motivation to do what they believe in and are connected to, like a religious person acts according to his values and beliefs. In these schools the teachers themselves wrote the school based curriculum, which is the vision and the values that derive from them. As Holt (1970) writes, every person needs and must be free to choose and go in his way. This inner intention is the inner force that motivates the person to do and create. In this situation, the teachers are willing to do above and beyond so as to fulfill their desire. Since their values merge with those of the school, the teachers will do for the school above and beyond what their role requires of them. The connection to the values and visions also influences the attitudes but its uniqueness is its ability to translate theory into reality: it gives the teachers the force to act. Therefore, a school with a school based curriculum is an organization that succeeds in increasing the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior, in surmounting the differences that exist among the teachers, and in increasing uniform and high behavior among the teachers. The significant influence of the school with school based curriculum reinforces what the researchers maintain: that the worker does not work in a vacuum and that the work environment may have significant implications on his behavior (George and Jones, 1997).

The school based curriculum is one example of the differences among schools but it is necessary to continue to focus on researches that examine the traits of organizations, in addition to the research of variables on the level of the individual. In addition, the fact that the behavior of teachers depends so significantly on the organization's environment gives the school principals considerable power to influence and the possibility of boosting the workers' organizational citizenship behavior.

This is discussed in the next section, which addresses the practical implications of the research.

2. Practical and Theoretical Implications of the Research

The research findings and conclusions crystallized till now raise implications in the research-theoretical and practical dimensions. The applicative implications are directed at the shapers of policy and the school principals, while the theoretical implications focus on future research.

2.1 Applicative Implications

Applicative Implications for School Principals

The research has proved the decisive impact of the variable of organization – the school type – on the organizational citizenship behavior. The implication is that the school principal, who heads the organization and is identified by the teachers with the organization (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002), has the considerable ability to encourage and improve this behavior among teachers.

The present research proved that schools with school based curricula encourage and increase this behavior among teachers. In addition, they have positive influence on the teachers' attitudes, which also lead to OCB. It must not be concluded that schools that want to improve the OCB need to write school based curricula, since the writing of such a curriculum is a long process, fraught with difficulties, which requires energy, time, and the recruitment of the entire school faculty. However, principals can learn and adopt traits of the schools with school based curricula and thus improve the teachers' attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. Schools with school based curricula have a democratic atmosphere and cooperation in decision making, shared and orderly learning, which make them into learning organizations and the teachers themselves write and develop the school based curricula. Therefore, the school principals who want to achieve these behaviors and attitudes need to involve the school staff in the decision making process, encourage the teachers to be partners in different programs and even in writing them, and to work through teamwork. Certainly the principal needs to avoid unilateral decisions or programs that the teachers do not accept.

Furthermore, the principal must be aware of the fact that organizational citizenship behaviors are primarily undertaken because of reciprocity norms. Therefore, it is important that the principal evince sensitivity, support, understanding, and empathy of the teachers and their needs. Teachers who feel that the principal supports them, is attentive to their needs, and treats them generously will have positive attitudes and will respond with reciprocity with expressions of OCB. However, it appears that beyond the positive attitude towards the teachers and the general atmosphere in the school there is supreme importance to the fact that the contents of the school based curricula are an expression of the shared vision that is based on educational philosophy and the values of the faculty. A principal can begin a process of clarification of the teachers' beliefs and values and gradually attempt to create through shared learning a shared vision. The vision must be based on the teachers' opinions, since in this way there will be congruence between the teachers' values and needs and those of the school. The research results showed that of all the variables of attitudes the commitment that derives from the congruence between the individual's values and the school's values had the greatest influence on their organizational citizenship behavior. The shared vision is the intermediate stop on the way to the school based curriculum but it itself is similar to the lighthouse, which lights the way for the teachers. It encourages the teachers to undertake OCB to realize the school and goals and to improve their attitudes.

In addition to the teachers' attitudes and the school character, the research found that the demographic variables as well have impact on the teachers' behavior. Of these variables, the variable that was most significant is the variable of position scope: it became clear that teachers who work in a full-time position feel greater commitment and belonging to the school and they also perform more OCB. Therefore, it is recommended that principals prefer to accept to the school teachers who are willing to work in a full-time position.

Another recommendation for principals is to use OCB as a measure and tool for the assessment of their teachers and to reward teachers who undertake this behavior. In this way, the principals will significantly increase the incidence of these behaviors in the school. It is difficult to evaluate teachers in dimensions of profit or other economic dimensions, but principals can identify good teachers as those who

perform behaviors beyond their defined roles. The workers, on their part, perform this behavior since it creates a good impression in those around them and in their superiors and they expect reciprocity, to receive recompense for it. (Bolino, 1999).

The principals need to encourage all types of organizational citizenship behavior. However, they should especially encourage behaviors directed towards students, since the research has shown that teachers who adopt these behaviors the least. As people of education, we cannot remain indifferent with this situation. In light of the fact that OCB towards students is sometimes not public, the principals should initiate conversations with the teachers to ascertain that it is undertaken and to praise it. The incentives can be a letter of appreciation, praise, public encouragement, personal conversations, and promotion at work (Chompookum and Brooklyn, 2004). In addition, the principal's reference and encouragement will encourage other teachers on the faculty to adopt these activities.

These recommendations to the principals and the management staff members provide a real and applicative way to increase the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior and to improve the school's effectiveness. Principals, who succeed in giving the teachers the support that they need, who praise their organizational citizenship behavior, who lead the staff to an atmosphere of cooperation, learning, and reciprocity, and who succeed in together crystallizing the educational vision, will gain satisfied teachers who are motivated to promote the school and act on its behalf.

Applicative Implications in the Field of Teacher Training

Additional applicative recommendations are in the field of teacher training, which can instill in the students knowledge on the importance of organizational citizenship behaviors and encourage the teachers of the future to adopt OCB towards different factors in the school. The research results showed that teachers performed OCB towards their student to the least extent, although the training programs emphasize the two main areas of teaching, which engage in the student and his advancement: subject matter and pedagogical learning knowledge (Wang and Odell, 2002). In the everyday reality, teachers find it difficult to combine between these two pedagogies, since the educational system places greater emphasis on excellence and scholastic achievements and

the teacher works in overcrowded classes. Therefore, it is natural that the teachers' viewpoint and behavior towards the students and his unique needs are pushed to the side (Silberstein and Goz, 2005).

For the teachers to see the students as a whole and not only their learning abilities it is necessary to place greater emphasis in the theoretical courses and in the practical experience in the school on the topic of pedagogical learning knowledge. The courses should engage in the complexity of the single student's world, his needs, and the importance of the unique and individual view. In the practical experience in the schools, it is necessary to have experience with the individual student, in which the student teacher will be responsible for the student, will increase his familiarity with them, and will prepare a personal intervention program. The in-depth familiarity with the student in its different aspects – learning, emotional, behavioral, and social – is what gives the pedagogical knowledge of the students (Wang and Odell, 2002). This familiarity will increase the moral responsibility, the devotion, and the commitment to the school students, which will encourage teachers to undertake behaviors towards their students even if these behaviors are not a part of the role obligation.

In addition to this recommendation, the training needs to focus on the broad view of teaching as a collaborative profession, which sees the teacher as a part of the community and the organization. In the past, the teacher was often described as isolated in his classroom (Lortie, 1975). This perception gives the teacher independence but disengages him from his natural environment, from the context in which he works. The teacher is a part of the community of teachers and organization and together with them he creates the organization's culture. In addition, he is committed to the organization and to his peers. From the stage of the training, the teaching students should acquire theoretical and practical tools for teamwork so that they will be willing to work and contribute to the school staff and to the school as an organization, alongside additional topics that encourage the performance of this behavior. The theoretical studies will include the learning of teamwork and its implementation alongside the organized study of OCB and its significance and contribution. Furthermore, the studies can include courses that will train the teacher to develop school curricula so that he can continue and fit into schools that develop school based curricula. Since the school has a decisive role in the encouragement of these

behaviors, it is recommended that the students' practical work be performed in schools where the students will be with a team that performs OCB or in schools where the work environment encourages these behaviors. The students who are trained in these schools will learn and will perform OCB through modeling.

The two foci presented in the previous paragraphs, the learning of the individual child and the learning of the school as an organization, do not contradict one another. The combination of these two foci may lead the student teachers and the teachers to develop a broad perception of their work and the importance of OCB and encourage them to perform these behaviors.

2.2 Theoretical Implications: Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The unique and interesting research results pave the way for future research to add to and enrich what is known about the organizational citizenship behavior of teachers and the factors that encourage it. Conversely, although the research yielded interesting findings, like every research, there are several limitations.

The first limitation is related to the fact that the information regarding the teachers' expressions of behavior and attitudes was based on questionnaires for self-completion. Since this source was exclusive, it is possible that data collected in this way are subject to errors that derive from self-bias, from the respondent's lack of objectivity. It is possible that teachers reported things that are different from their opinion because of the phenomenon of social desirability or the fear of precise reporting, as previous researches clarified (Alper, Tjosvold, and Law, 1998). The fact that the questionnaires are anonymous and the teachers and principals are explicitly informed that they are not required to cite their name or the school's name reduces this threat to some extent, but nevertheless this point should be taken into account.

Future researches can combine additional methods for the collection of data on the teachers' organizational citizenship behavior, for example, they can have the school principal or colleagues fill out OCB questionnaires. In addition, it is possible to integrate additional research methods, from the qualitative research, for instance, interviews. Each of these sampling methods has its own shortcomings and

limitations but sometimes the integration between methods may yield a more accurate outcome than the use of one sampling method.

In any event, the determination of the nature of the school as having school based curricula or a regular school was made according to the reports of the supervisors and instructors, experts in the field of school based curricula that classified the schools because of the knowledge that the description of the teacher's work environment may be influenced by prejudices. Some researchers maintain that the fact that the worker fills out a questionnaire is a voluntary action and may indicate a degree of OCB (Becker and Randall, 1994). Therefore, it is likely that those who returned the questionnaires represent, from the very start, people who tend to evince high organizational citizenship behavior. The fact that the researcher was herself in the teachers' room, gave the teachers the questionnaires, and waited till they were returned to her completed led to a high percentage of completion and reduced this fear.

A second limitation is the generalization ability. The research was performed in elementary schools in the center of Israel in the Jewish sector. Due to this fact, it is likely that there is some detriment to the level of generalization to teachers and schools from other sectors and other geographic regions. To extend the generalization ability it is recommended to research other organizations in public service and other education organizations such as high schools, public and private education institutions, and educational frameworks that are not schools, for instance colleges of teacher training and universities (Oplatka, 2006). Due to the fact that the variable of the organization was found to be most significant in the research, it is possible that the examination of additional organization will shed further light on the findings obtained now. In addition, it should be remembered that the findings obtained are relevant to the educational system in Israel and should not be generalized for educational systems in other countries. So as to extend the ability to generalize and draw conclusions, it is recommended to perform a continuation research in other countries, which will include different sectors (Tierney, Farmer, and Graen, 1999).

Another limitation is related to the research variables. Naturally, the research addresses a limited number of variables and cannot examine all the variables that may be related to teacher OCB. The research examined on the level of the individual variables of attitudes and

demographic variables. In contrast, additional variables that may be related on the level of the individual were not examined, for instance, the teacher's personality and temperament. In addition, it is recommended to focus on additional variables of the traits of the organization, since as can be seen, the variable of school based curricula has the strongest impact on the teachers' behavior. Previous research studies also found that the variables on the level of the organization have greater influence than do variables on the level of the individual (Somech and Ron, 2007). Nevertheless, few researches examined the 'character' and traits of the organization (Karambayya, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1997). Therefore, it is recommended to examine additional variables on the level of the school that may also add to the understanding of this variable. A future research can add to the variables that were examined, propose additional models to the proposed model and validate essential findings found in the present research.

It is necessary to remember that researches that examined OCB among teachers are few in number, although the influences of this behavior are critical to the school. In an era of reforms and changes, the educational system needs to rely more and more on teachers who will be willing to contribute beyond their duty. Therefore, it is recommended to continue to research this behavior so as to extend what is known on this phenomenon theoretically and empirically and the factors that encourage it. Thus, we can give principals, determiners of policy, and teacher training institutions applicative tools that will help the educational system attain good achievements that will enable it to cope with the challenges it faces.

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Appendices

Appendix Number 1: The Organizational Citizenship Behavior Questionnaire

The statements before you describe a variety of behaviors. For every statement, you are asked to evaluate the extent to which you agree or object it.

Please circle the number that best describes your evaluation, from 1 = disagree totally to 5 = agree totally.

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	I learn from my own initiative new topics that can contribute to my performance at work and extend my professional skill.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I tend to remain in the school after the school day to help students with difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
3	During the recesses, I remain in the class to listen to my students in my class.	1	2	3	4	5
4	During the year, I come to the school on my free days to ascertain that there are no problems in my class.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I prepare special tasks for children with a much higher or much lower than average level.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I organize shared activities with the parents beyond what is commonly done.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I tend to participate in private events of the students (birthdays, <i>Bar Mitzvah</i> celebrations).	1	2	3	4	5
8	I tend to invite students to my home.	1	2	3	4	5
9	When the teacher parallel to me is late, I go into his class and give his students an assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I tend to help new teachers even when this is not a part of my role definition.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I tend to offer teachers worksheets and games that I prepared for my class.	1	2	3	4	5

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
12	I tend to volunteer to be a member of the teachers' committee.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I tend to initiate and/or organize social activities for the entire school.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I tend to work in cooperation with parallel teachers (design of lesson plans, tests, projects).	1	2	3	4	5
15	I tend to invest of my time in the care for and decoration of the school.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I attempt to enter the class a number of minutes before the bell.	1	2	3	4	5
17	When I know ahead of time that I will be absent from the school, I prepare a lesson plan for the substitute teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I frequently volunteer to perform assignments and roles that are not officially required in my role (performance of special projects, responsible for security, beauty).	1	2	3	4	5
19	I tend to assume responsibility and roles above and beyond what is defined in my role.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I initiate and propose innovative ideas to improve the school.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I tend to participate actively in the teachers' meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I tend to devote my free hours in favor of the school and in helping the principal.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I tend to participate in activities that are not a part of my roles but can contribute to the positive image of the school.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix Number 2: The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire – Affective Commitment

The statements before you address your opinions and feelings towards the school where you work. Please think how you usually feel in regards to the work in the school.

Please circle the number that best describes your evaluation, from 1 = disagree totally to 5 = agree totally.

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I enjoy speaking with people outside of my school.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I really feel that that the problems of my school are my problems.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I can easily connect to another school as I am connected to the school where I work.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I do not feel a part of the 'family' of my school.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to the school where I work.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The school where I work has great personal meaning to me.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to the school where I work.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix Number 3: The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire – Value Congruence Commitment

The statements before you address your opinions and feelings towards the school where you work. Please think how you usually feel in regards to the work in the school.

Please circle the number that best describes your evaluation, from 1 = disagree totally to 5 = agree totally.

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	If the values of the school were different, I would not feel attached to this school.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Since I joined this school, my personal values and the school values have become more similar.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The reason I prefer this school to other schools is that it adheres to its principles – its values.	1	2	3	4	5
4	My relationship to the school is primarily established because my values are similar to the values represented by the school.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The values represented by this school are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix Number 4: The Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire

The statements before you address your opinions and feelings towards the school where you work. Please think how you usually feel in regards to the work in the school.

Please circle the number that best describes your evaluation, from 1 = disagree totally to 5 = agree totally.

		Totally disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Totally agree
1	The school where I work cares about my opinions.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The school where I work cares about my personal well being.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The school where I work is very considerate of the personal goals and values.	1	2	3	4	5
4	When I have a problem, it is very likely that the school will offer me a hand.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The school where I work is forgiving of a situation when I make an innocent mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
6	The school where I work will exploit me if I give it the opportunity.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The school where I work evinces very little caring about me.	1	2	3	4	5
8	If I need a special favor, then the school where I work is willing to help me.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix Number 5: The Satisfaction in the School Questionnaire

The statements before you address your satisfaction with the different aspects of your work as a teacher. Please read every statement and note the extent to which you are satisfied or not satisfied with it. Please circle the number that best describes your satisfaction, from 1 = very not satisfied to 5 = very satisfied.

		Very not satisfied	Not satisfied	Fairly satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied
1	The social relations with the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
2	The respect I receive from the people with whom I work.	1	2	3	4	5
3	The degree of confidence I have at work.	1	2	3	4	5
4	The degree of personal development I feel at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5	The sense of self-realization I have in the role.	1	2	3	4	5
6	The degree of challenge I find in my work in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The promotion opportunities in my work as a teacher in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
8	In general I am satisfied with my work.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix Number 6: Personal Details Questionnaire

Please circle the appropriate the answer or provide the details to answer the question.

1. **Gender:** Male / Female

2. **Role in the school:**

- | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Principal | 5. Subject teacher of _____ |
| 2. Vice principal | 6. Grade coordinator |
| 3. Homeroom teacher | 7. Management staff |
| 4. Subject coordinator | 8. Other _____ |

3. **Education**

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1. Seminar – Teaching Certificate | 4. Studies towards academic degree _____ |
| 2. Undergraduate degree | 5. Number of training credits _____ |
| 3. Graduate degree | 6. Other _____ |

4. **Teaching experience** _____

5. **Experience in the school** _____

6. **Experience in the role** _____

7. **Scope of the position in the school:** Full time / part time / mother (fewer hours)

8. **Tenure:** I have tenure / I have not yet received tenure

Appendix Number 7: School Background **Questionnaire**

1. Type of School:

- A. Regular
- B. Autonomous with school based curriculum
Number of years of school based curriculum _____
Topic of school based curriculum _____

2. Type of School Sector:

- A. State Education
- B. State Religious Education

3. Size of the school:

- A. Up to 300 students
- B. 301-600 students
- C. 601 and more students

4. Age of the school: _____

5. Socioeconomic level of the students: (% disadvantaged)

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| 1. Up to 10% | 4. Up to 40% |
| 2. Up to 20% | 5. Up to 50% |
| 3. Up to 30% | 6. Above 50% |

6. Number of teachers in the school:

- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| 1. Up to 15 | 3. Up to 45 |
| 2. Up to 30 | 4. Above 45 |